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ABSTRACT

The result of a literature survey in the general area of rural-urban migration and poverty, this report presents both a synthesis of current research findings and an annotated bibliography. The synthesis includes a nine chapter discussion of: (1) the rural areas left by the migrants; (2) the decision to migrate; (3) comparative characteristics of rural-urban migrants and non-migrants living in urban areas; (4) comparative characteristics of migrants and non-migrants (racial differences); (5) the adjustment of migrants in urban areas; (6) rural return migration; (7) the effects of migration on rural areas; (8) the effect of migration on urban areas; and (9) the policy implications and needed research. The 1,139 annotated bibliographic citations include pamphlets, bulletins, dissertations, research papers, journal articles, etc. Some entries include full abstracts, and a topical index is provided to facilitate use of the bibliography. (JC)

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FINAL REPORT

RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION AND POVERTY: A SYNTHESIS OF RESEARCH FINDINGS, WITH A LOOK AT THE LITERATURE

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PREFACE

This report is the result of a literature survey in the general area of rural-urban migration and poverty. In the American social and economic system we assume that there will be labor mobility in order to equalize differential needs for labor, which from the individual point of view represent differential opportunities. Rural to urban migration is only one aspect of labor mobility but one that has attracted a great deal of attention because the differential needs for labor in rural and urban areas have lead to the movement of large numbers of people. It has been assumed that most of these migrants are uneducated, black, and moving in order to obtain higher welfare payments, and thus have been the cause of major urban problems. The findings reported here indicate that the research in this area does not support this assumption. Most rural-urban migrants are white; the recent black migrants are as well educated as the urban blacks; relatively small proportions of the migrants are on welfare; and the migrants are earning about the same average incomes as the urban nonmigrants. Details as well as conflicting findings are presented in the report and in the annotated bibliography.

This work was supported by the Office of Economic Opportunity (Contract Number B 00-5209), and we are grateful to Mrs. Patricia Koshel, the Project Manager, for her assistance, suggestions and support throughout. Mrs. Melanie M. Sikes was responsible for the annotated bibliography as well as assisting in many other ways throughout the project. Mrs. Deborah Oakley capably assisted in preparing the final report for duplication. The opinions expressed herein should not be construed as representing the opinions or policy of any agency of the United States Government or of TRACOR, Inc.

Daniel O. Price
Project Director

28 July 1971

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throughout — blacks are not an ethnic group nor are whites!

Chapter 1. The Areas Left Behind

In recent years many people have developed a concern for rural to urban migration because of assumed consequences in urban areas. However, it is important to consider the areas from which the migration takes place. Two basic factors are involved in producing a "surplus" population for outmigration. One of these is an above-average rate of natural increase (excess of births over deaths), and the other is a decreasing demand for farm labor. Both of these factors have been operating in the rural United States, and until about the time of World War II, the more important of the two was probably the higher rate of natural increase due to higher levels of fertility. Since World War II, however, the fertility differential between urban and rural areas has been decreasing, and the decreasing demand for farm labor has become of increasing importance in producing a "surplus" rural population.

While it is relatively simple to say that high levels of fertility ("population pressure") and decreasing demand for farm labor are the major "push" factors responsible for heavy outmigration, it is much more complicated to take into account the factors which are behind these "pushes."

Rarely is it possible to find a study which mentions the decreasing demand for farm labor without mentioning the mechanization of agriculture. The terms, "aggregation of agriculture," "changes in crop acreages" and the like are readily employed. Generally, natural increase rates also are noted. Rural depopulation is linked to lack of economic opportunities mainly in subsistence agricultural areas, where industrialization has not occurred rapidly enough to absorb the surplus population entering the labor force, or where land is not convertible to more efficient use. Existing employment opportunities are often said to go disproportionately to whites, while many decreases in farm labor needs occur in those farm occupations in which a disproportionate number of blacks are employed. Data for 1920 to the present and for states, regions and economic areas all substantiate the major ideas presented here. Reduced mobility potentials and high dependency ratios are just two results of heavy outmigration frequently cited. There seems to be general agreement that the areas of heavy outmigration will continue to be areas of outmigration for some time to come.

As Beale points out (1007), southern Negroes, Anglos in Appalachia, Spanish-Americans and American Indians comprised less than 20 percent of the rural population in 1950, but accounted for approximately 50 percent of the net rural to urban migration between 1950 and 1960. Their overall outmigration rate was about 25 percent, but there was only a 10 percent decline in their rural population. The difference was made up by high fertility. Thus, despite the decreasing demand for farm labor, high rural fertility is still an important factor in producing population pressure that results in rural to urban migration. High birth rates are noted as a factor in outmigration by Andrews (0017), Bowles (0128), Brown and Hillery (0162), Bryant and Wilber (0172), Davis (0235), Farley (0286), Hagood (0390), Hamilton (0402, 0403, 0404, 0408), the National Sharecroppers Fund (0685), Persky and Kain (0745), Smith (0909), and Wilhelm and Powell (1100).

In the South the rate of declining agricultural employment has been greater for Negroes than for whites, primarily as a result of the Negroes' greater concentration in cotton. From 1950 to 1969 the number of white family workers in agricultural employment in the South declined from 2,741,000 to 1,192,000. This is a decline of more than 1½ million in absolute numbers, and the 1969 figure is approximately 44 percent of the 1950 figure. For Negroes, however, the decline during the same period of time was from 767,000 to 158,000. This was a decline in absolute numbers of more than 600,000, which left the 1969 employment figure at only

21 percent of the 1950 figure. (Figures are from 1122.) Lecht (0562) indicates that this trend of diminishing farm labor needs can be expected to continue through the "seventies," although at a decreasing rate, as a consequence of technological developments and the extension to farm labor of social legislation, such as minimum wage and unemployment compensation.

Rural blacks have been highly concentrated in cotton and tobacco culture, with peanut growing being the third most important crop in the agricultural employment of blacks. The mechanization of cotton growing has been an important part of the background of rural to urban migration of blacks. In 1950, only one percent of the cotton grown in the South (excluding Texas and Oklahoma) was machine-harvested (0054). By 1969, 94 percent of Southern cotton was machine-harvested, and chemical weed control had further reduced the need for manual labor. Peanut production has been mechanized, and acreage cutbacks and labor-saving devices have reduced labor requirements in tobacco. It is potentially possible to mechanize tobacco growing, but the present pattern of crop allotments prevents the accumulation of the acreages necessary for efficient mechanization. If and when mechanization develops in tobacco culture, there will be the potential for another wave of black migrants from rural to urban areas.

Mechanization and changes in crop acreages are cited as factors in outmigration by Andrews (0017), Bertrand (0082), Bryant and Leung (0171), Bryant and Wilber (0172), Butcher (0191), Conway (0217), Hagood (0390), and the National Sharecroppers Fund (0685). Dillingham and Sly (0252) say that technological innovations in agriculture are a major source of the Negro's poor economic condition. They find the idea that migration leads to mechanization untenable. Farley (0286) believes that the Southern black rural population is sure to drop as aggregation occurs in agriculture. Hamilton (0403) cites the high rate of Negro outmigration from the

South related not only to mechanization, but specifically to the shift of cotton production to the Southwest and West and governmental programs limiting agricultural production. In 1950 he (0402) estimated that about 50 percent of the net migration from farms could be accounted for by population pressure, the rest by differential economic opportunity.

Bernert (0076) shows that losses from rural-farm population were proportionately greater among nonwhites than among whites, starting in about 1930. Bryant and Wilber (0172) found blacks were more likely to move out of state than whites when they left the farm. Christensen (0203) and others note that white outmigration from rural areas had occurred more recently and at a lesser rate than for blacks. A dialogue presented in New Generation (2050) shows that though Negro youths constitute one eighth of rural youth, they contribute about 20-25% of outmigration, with forced migration affecting a higher proportion of rural Negroes than whites. Farley (0286) states that within the South, the Negro farm population will continue to decline, but that it is difficult to predict the volume and direction of the migration that will occur. He says that increased employment opportunities for blacks in areas of the Southwest may stem the outmigration of blacks from the South somewhat. Both he and Hamilton (0403) cite continuing growth of the total number of rural blacks. In fact, Wilhelm and Powell (1100) found that the birth rate among rural blacks was so high that it probably would more than replenish the loss through outmigration.

The trends indicate that we will continue to have "surplus" rural population although in decreasing numbers. The areas which have been the sources of the rural to urban migration will continue to be the sources. They are areas with high fertility and/or with decreasing needs for farm labor. A Census map showing population change from 1960 to 1970 by counties (1137) shows approximately half of the counties of the United States losing population during this period, most of them being rural counties. The counties losing population are for the most part concentrated in three areas: the Great Plains area down through the middle of the United States, the Old Cotton Belt, and the Appalachians.

Because of the decrease in the farm population base, the number of rural to urban migrants will probably continue to decline in the future although the rate of off-farm migration remains relatively constant (1137). Between 1940 and 1970 the average annual rate of net outmigration from farms was relatively constant at slightly over five percent. During this period, however, the total farm population declined from approximately thirty million to two million, resulting in a decline in the number of off-farm migrants. It is almost certain that this decline will continue, resulting in a decline in the total number of rural to urban migrants. Although there are no annual estimates of the number of rural to urban migrants, the figure is probably in the order of 200,000 (1137).

Chapter 2. The Decision to Migrate

The reasons for migration are usually framed in terms of "push" and "pull" factors. It is likely that the motivation for so complex a social event as migration is rarely understood completely by the migrant. The previous chapter discusses high fertility and reduced demand for agricultural labor as the causes of rural to urban migration. The way in which these factors impinge on a specific individual and result in a decision to migrate, or not to migrate, may be quite complex. While most migrants might give a "reason" for migrating, this leads immediately to a philosophical discussion on the nature of cause and effect.

The Census Bureau points out (1033) that "brief inquiries on reasons for moving do not necessarily produce a definitive catalog of the causes of mobility, although they do provide some useful insights." In the study from which the quotation is taken, approximately two-thirds of the migrants 18 to 64 years of age reported job-related reasons for migration, approximately 10 percent reported housing reasons, 14 percent reported change in marital status, or move with family, and 11 percent gave other reasons.

In the national sample studied, the Census Bureau found less than one percent reporting a "forced" migration, or migration due to reasons beyond the individual's control. In interviewing rural residents at or below the poverty level, the TRACOR study (0781) found that approximately 10 percent of the most recent moves had been due to circumstances beyond the individual's control. We do not know that all of these moves were far enough to be counted as migrations, but the figure is still more than twice as high as the percent of "forced" moves reported to the Census Bureau by intracountry movers. One may conclude from these data that the poor have less control over their situation than do others and are more at the mercy of outside forces. This is a generally accepted idea but has not been pointed out before with respect to migration.

The previous chapter indicated the major situations in rural areas underlying rural-urban migration. A more favorable opportunity structure in urban areas constitutes the "pull" (0215, 0300, 0679, 0781, 0821, 0999, 1033). The "bright lights" hypothesis, or the appeal of urban life, is frequently cited (0001, 0210, 0359, 0620) as an attractive force. Thus, we have structural "pushes" and "pulls" that might be referred to as the "causes" of rural-urban migration. How do these get translated at the individual level into a decision to migrate? As reported by the Census Bureau study referred to above (1033), as well as by most other studies, migrants most frequently give economic or job-related reasons for migration. The "surplus" rural population and the perceived opportunity structures of urban and rural areas combine to lead many rural dwellers to view migration as a way of improving their economic position.

It is important to distinguish the decision to migrate from the selection of a destination. These decisions are not always made independently of each other, but a rural resident may realize that some day he will move; thus, some precipitating event may determine the time of migration and the destination (0001, 0781). In one study, an occupational or economic situation was most frequently cited as the precipitating event (0781). For many other individuals, a change in marital or family status is the precipitating event, although the Census Bureau (1033) reports only about four percent of male migrants give "change in marital status" as the reason for migration. It is almost certain that the percentage would be higher for female migrants. The relationship of changing marital status to migration has not been sufficiently well studied, although Fried (0316) has pointed out that change in marital status should be classified as prior or subsequent to migration. He indicates, as we have assumed above, that most changes in marital status or family relationship are prior to migration, not a result of migration. Also, the stage in the life cycle, or "leaving the nest," frequently determines the time at which migration takes place (0223, 0224, 0574).

The basic decision of whether or not to migrate is related to plans for further education, poor adjustment to the home community, and occupational aspirations (0114, 0215, 0620).

The Census Bureau (1033) reports that about 40 percent of migrants give non-economic reasons for migration, reasons such as housing, family status, health, and so forth. One might hypothesize that among potential migrants, non-economic factors would be more prevalent in the decision not to migrate than in the decision to migrate (0001, p. 22; 0916). Again, little is known about the decision-making process. Turner (0999) substantiates the finding that most migrants give economic reasons for migration, with the rest divided between those factors associated with friends and relatives and those with quality of living (mainly housing). He further examined these reasons by socioeconomic status and found that low socioeconomic status individuals more frequently mentioned economic factors, while higher socioeconomic status people gave non-economic reasons. This is consistent with the previously mentioned finding that the poor are more at the mercy of their surroundings and environment, while the nonpoor may migrate to obtain amenities rather than economic gains.

Studies of the Labor Department's labor mobility programs (0696, 0697, 0967, 1130, 0285, 0487, 0488) indicate that the offer of a financial subsidy to cover costs of moving were reported by the migrants to have had no effect in about one-third of the cases, to have made migration possible earlier than it otherwise would have occurred in another third of the cases, and to have been the

1 in availability
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no costs

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deciding factor for migration in the remaining third of the cases. Thus, among this group we find a wide range in certainty of the decision to migrate, with the offer of subsidy reported as being the relevant factor in some cases. Among those for whom the subsidy was the relevant factor, a higher proportion returned to the rural area. Between 1952 and 1965 the Bureau of Indian Affairs relocated 70,000 Indians from reservations to cities (0372, 0373, 0967) and despite the provision of many services, 40 percent returned to the reservations.

In order to understand more thoroughly rural-urban migration, we need to know more about the perceived reasons for migration of potential migrants of different educational and financial situations. It is not sufficient to report that most migrants move for financial reasons, because it is quite likely that many, if not most, of these who decide against migrating do so for financial reasons also. For example, it is known (0182) that the sons of farm owners and other farm boys who have some prospect of having a farm of their own are less likely to plan migration out of the rural area.

The age distribution of migrants (mostly young people and young adults) indicates that for many people migration is part of the process of making an acceptable adjustment to the labor force, and it is most likely to occur at the time of entry into the labor force or shortly thereafter as part of the process of finding a niche (0215, 0300, 0574, 0679).

As mentioned earlier, the decision to migrate is usually separated from the choice of destination, and different factors may affect each decision. The decision to migrate is likely to have its basis in structural factors, such as declining agricultural employment and high fertility. The choice of a destination is more amenable to individual control. Most studies report economic and job factors as the major reasons for migration, and this is the way in which the structural situation impinges on the individual. The choice of a destination is most frequently made on the basis of friends and relatives. This is especially true among migrants of lower socioeconomic status (0316, 0999). Among Negroes, the decision to migrate may be delayed by racial discrimination which makes it more difficult to leave familiar surroundings for unknown discriminations (0559, 0610). Among such groups, the presence of friends and relatives in a distant location helps overcome the fears of moving but may encourage migration to a place where jobs do not exist.

In addition to serving as a buffer in the problems of adjustment to an urban environment (see Chapter 5), friends and relatives serve as sources of information about the potential destination. It has been shown (0500, 0600, 0690) that the transportation costs play a minor role in migration destination as compared to information. Poor people utilize fewer channels of information and are, therefore, limited almost entirely to those destinations where they have friends and relatives. This does not mean that the migration is not responsive to changing opportunity structure, but because of limited information, that it is more responsive to changes over time in a few locations than to differential opportunity structures in a variety of locations.

The discussion of factors involved in the decision to migrate as contrasted with the selection of a destination indicates that it might be easier to set up a program that would change the choices of destinations of migrants than it would be to set up a program to affect the factors that are a basis for migration. This matter is discussed further in the final chapter.

A frequent stereotype is that many poor people from rural areas, especially blacks, migrate in order to be eligible for higher welfare payments. No study found this as a reason for migration, and several studies found receipt of welfare to be negatively associated with migration. Beale (0054) reports that rural-urban black migrant families were somewhat less likely to have received welfare money than were blacks still living in rural areas. Similar findings are reported by Bowles (0127) and Bacon (0029). Lansing and Mueller (0559) found that in their national sample, rural welfare recipients were slightly more likely to migrate, but that the difference between welfare recipients and nonrecipients was not statistically significant. Abt (0001), Petersen and Sharp (0747), and Price (0781) found either no association between migration and receipt of welfare or found that migrants were slightly less likely to receive welfare. In a study of Puerto Rican and black migrants to New York, Struening, Rabkins, and Peck (0933) found that "recent arrivals to the city do not end up on welfare roles more quickly than more permanent residents." Hanson and Simmons (0415) found that migrants who end up on welfare do so because of unstable employment experience, exacerbated by previously established spending patterns, and that those who might have but did not end up on welfare had better health and fewer family responsibilities. While it is quite likely that a few individuals may migrate to improve welfare benefits, it seems well established that the number is so small that this cannot be listed as a relevant reason for migration.

Strong ties to and identification with a rural area obviously serve as a reason for not migrating. Two studies (0001, 0781) found the strongest ties to the rural area among Anglos and the weakest among blacks, with Mexican-Americans falling at an intermediate position. Relatively little is known about the factors that make for strong identification with an area although some work has been done by Solomon (0916). This is an important area for research, because such feelings militate against labor mobility that might provide economic benefits both to individuals and to society.

Chapter 3. Characteristics of Migrants Compared with Nonmigrants in Areas of Origin

Those individuals who move away from an area are different in many ways from those who remain. The difference that may be the most important and also the least studied, because of the difficulties involved, is the difference in motivation. Why does one person decide to leave an area while his brother, with similar characteristics, chooses to remain? The differences between migrants and nonmigrants in motivation are relatively unstudied and yet may constitute at least part of the explanation for many of the differences that are observed. Outmigrants are found to be better educated than nonmigrants, but is this because individuals who have obtained more education have better employment opportunities by moving, or because highly motivated individuals are more likely to stay in school longer and also more likely to move in search of better opportunities? The answer to this question is important for policy reasons, but not much research sheds light on the question. We have information on such variables as education and income. The differences could be due to motivation, but we do not know whether they are or not.

Martinson (0620) examined some of the background differences between migrants and nonmigrants and concluded that social aggressiveness was an important factor in the migration of girls, while academic achievement and urban-oriented interests were more important in the migration of boys. His sample was all white, but the findings were true for migrants from rural farm and rural nonfarm areas. Coller (0215) showed that occupational aspirations were associated with distance of migration. Much more research is needed on differences in motivation or need-achievement of individuals prior to migration.

Since Dorothy Swaine Thomas' classic work, Research Memorandum on Migration Differentials (0976), most research in migration has examined differentials between migrants and nonmigrants. Some studies have chosen the nonmigratory population at the place of origin as the comparison group; others have used the nonmigrants at place of destination. This chapter concentrates on the differentials between rural to urban migrants and rural nonmigrants, and the next chapter compares the migrants with their urban counterparts.

Two of the most soundly established differentials are the better education and the younger age of migrants. Young people are generally better educated than their elders; therefore, the fact that migrants tend to be young would in itself give migrants a higher level of education. However, differences in age do not explain all of the educational differences between migrants and nonmigrants (0618, 0397, 0399, 0772). Among nonwhites, the outmigrants are far superior educationally to the nonmigrants, and there is some evidence that the selectivity is increasing (0054, 0772). Among whites, outmigration from rural areas is selective of both the best and most poorly educated, with the pattern changing some with age at migration (0397). When we take the total U. S. population in 1967 and look at median educational attainment (1012), we find that the rural to urban migrants are better educated than the rural nonmigrants for both whites and Negroes. In fact, white rural to urban migrants on the average have 1.4 more years of education than white rural nonmigrants, while Negro rural to urban migrants on the average have only 0.8 years more education than Negro rural nonmigrants. Since these data are for the population 17 and over, the cumulative effects of differentials are included, and these differences do not conflict with the previous statement that among Negroes in recent years the educational selectivity of rural to urban migration has been increasing.

One of the most consistent findings of all the research studies is that the rural to urban migrants earn as much or more than the nonmigrants left in the rural areas (0001, 0625, 0747, 0781, 1012, 1086). The studies are not consistent in their findings on the amount of difference, but this is explainable by the fact that they used different populations, different age groups, different times of migration, different lengths of time in the urban area, and so forth. While Negroes earn less in both urban and rural areas, most studies report that the urban-rural differences in income for Negroes are greater in both absolute and relative amounts. For example, let us take the income of male-headed families classed as rural of rural origin and rural to urban migrants as reported in the Survey of Economic Opportunity (1012). The rural and urban family income figures for Negroes were $3100 and $5900, urban income being nearly twice the rural income. For whites the corresponding figures were $6400 and $8300. A similar pattern of differences was found within age groups, for unattached individuals, and for female-headed families. Thus, there is little question that rural to urban migration improves incomes. Blum, et al, (0099) do not support this finding and conclude that for blacks, "...the fact that a geographical transition took place is not important in determining income. For nonblacks, the results are less clear-cut." However, they did not distinguish between rural to urban and urban to urban migrants.

Wertheimer (1086) presents strong evidence that the income gain by migration from a rural to an urban area increases with the size of city. He also indicates that the gains are less during the first five years in the city, but tend to reach a higher level after five years. The gains during the first five years compared to later years are relatively larger for Negroes than for whites. The regression technique which he used in analyzing data from the Survey of Economic Opportunity indicates little or no financial gains in rural to urban migration for unrelated females and female heads of households after adjustments are introduced for education, age and race. Although he introduced several interaction terms in various regressions, he did not introduce a sex by color interaction which is known to exist with respect to income and which might have changed his findings on this point.

An aspect which is not examined by most of the research and which has some relevance for the study of motivation for migration is the comparison between the incomes which migrants had in the rural areas before migrating and the incomes of others in rural areas at that time who did not migrate later. In other words, did the migrants have above-average incomes in rural areas before migrating? The TRACOR study (0781) has some unpublished data which shed light on this question. Among Negroes in Yazoo County, Mississippi, the probability of becoming a rural to urban migrant after 1963 increased with increasing 1963 family income. The rate of outmigration was significantly higher among those Negroes with higher family incomes. Among Anglos in Butler County, Kentucky, the reverse pattern was found. The rate of outmigration was lower among those Anglos with higher incomes. A similar finding was reported among Kentucky Anglos by Breazeale (0142). Among Mexican-Americans no association was found between rate of outmigration and family income prior to migration. This lends support to the Petersen and Sharp suggestion (0747, p. 31) that "white men come to Cleveland to find a job, Negroes, to find a better job." One might suggest that this is related to the differences in level of income of whites and Negroes in rural areas. A person has to achieve a certain financial level before migration is a possibility. This is not the case, however, because the trends hold within the same income range and income categories for Negroes and Anglos. The numbers were too small to examine the trend within educational categories. These differential trends suggest that outmigration from rural areas may deprive the rural Negro communities of potential leadership to a much greater extent than is true for rural white communities.

As might be expected from the improvement in income following rural to urban migration, the proportion of rural to urban migrants in poverty is considerably lower than the proportion of rural residents in poverty (0127, 0781). Similarly, the proportion of rural to urban migrants receiving welfare assistance is lower than the proportion of rural population of rural origin that receives assistance (ibid).

Negro fertility increased during the period of rapid urbanization of the Negro population following World War II. apparently as a consequence of improved health and welfare facilities. As Farley (1125) said, "Urbanization does not appear to have reduced Negro fertility" (see also Farley, 1124). The Survey of Economic Opportunity (0132) provides information on the fertility (number of children ever born per 1000 females aged 35-44) of rural females of rural origin and rural to urban migrant females by race. The fertility of rural to urban migrant whites is 83 percent that of rural white females indicating some reduction in fertility of whites associated with rural to urban migration. For Negroes, the fertility of the rural to urban migrants is only 68 percent of the fertility of rural Negro females, indicating a major reduction in fertility of Negroes associated with rural to urban migration. It is not known whether this is due to selection or to the effect of migration. The fertility of each Negro group is considerably higher than that of the corresponding white group, however. It should be remembered that these measures of fertility are for women who were 35-44 in 1967, women who were at or near the end of their childbearing. According to Farley (1124) this is not the cohort of black females that will likely have the highest completed fertility, but it is not unreasonable to assume that these differentials between rural females and rural to urban migrants will continue with resulting reductions in Negro fertility.

If we look at the fertility of rural to urban migrants who found themselves in poverty in 1967, we find higher levels of fertility, than among rural to urban migrants who were not in poverty. Even among Negro rural to urban migrants in poverty, however, the fertility rate was still slightly below that found among rural Negroes and appreciably below that of rural Negroes in poverty. White rural to urban migrants in poverty had a higher level of fertility than did rural whites in general, not as high a fertility level as rural whites in poverty, and a higher fertility level than Negro rural to urban migrants in general.

The Survey of Economic Opportunity (0132) also makes it possible to compare the rural population of rural origin with the rural to urban migrants in terms of work-limiting health conditions. Neither the white nor the Negro rural to urban migrants have proportions of males with work-limiting health conditions that are significantly different from the rural males of rural origin. The figure is approximately 18 percent for the rural population and the migrants, white and Negro.

In summary, we see that the rural to urban migrants represent a selection of the more capable individuals from the rural area, especially among blacks. The migrants are younger, better educated, and, if black, may have had a higher income in the rural area. When they move to the city, they earn significantly more money than their counterparts of equal age and education in the rural area, and the larger the city to which they move, the more they earn. Their earnings tend to increase after about five years in the city. Fewer of them will be in poverty in the city than in rural areas and fewer will be receiving welfare. They will have significantly smaller families than their rural counterparts, and these differences will be greater for Negroes than whites, primarily because of the high fertility of rural Negroes.

Chapter 4. Characteristics of Rural to Urban Migrants Compared with Nonmigrants in Urban Areas

It is frequently assumed that many urban problems are either caused or made worse by the inmigrants from rural areas. This assumption is based on the further assumption that these inmigrants are likely to be uneducated, black, and looking for welfare assistance. In the previous chapter, we saw that these migrants were better educated and younger than the average rural resident and were better off financially in the urban area than were their rural counterparts. But how do they compare with the urban population which they are joining?

Most rural-urban migrants are white because most of the population is white, and also whites are more migratory than Negroes. However, migration results in greater redistribution of the Negro population because the counter-streams of migration are generally smaller among blacks (0776). Therefore, migration has an important effect on the increase in Negro population of metropolitan centers outside the South. At the present time, however, most of the population increase of Negroes in metropolitan areas is the result of natural increase rather than migration (0054, 0585, 0949, 1086). The tremendous reduction of absolute size of the rural farm population also indicates that the actual volume of rural-urban migration will decline in the future, although it is still of significant proportions. There are no figures on the annual amount of rural-urban migration, although there are estimates of net migration by decades for rural and urban areas (0769, p. 39) and estimates of net annual off-farm migration by five-year periods (1138).

Despite the fact that the rural-urban migrants are in general better educated than the people they leave behind in the rural areas, they are moving into areas where the levels of education are higher. Freedman (0310) in 1956 and Hamilton (0403) in 1964 found that white and black rural-urban migrants were less well educated than urban natives of the same ethnic group. Taeuber and Taeuber (0947) in 1965 reported that rural-urban black migrants were overall as well educated as the black urban population, but their gain disappeared when age was controlled. Tilly (0992) in 1967 found the average nonwhite migrant better educated than the average nonwhite urban native. Fried (0316) in 1970 found black migrants less well educated than urban blacks except that black inmigrants from other Northern metropolitan areas were better educated than the native urban population. It is clear that findings in this area depend on comparison groups in urban areas, with some studies failing to distinguish urban natives and urban inmigrants when comparing them with rural-urban migrants. However, most recently available controlled data (0132) indicate that rural-urban migrants' levels of education are similar to those of nonmigrant urban residents. Utilizing information from the Survey of Economic Opportunity (0132), we see that all rural-urban migrants 17 years of age and over had a median of 11.8 years of school completed, compared with 12.0 years of school completed by urban nonmigrants.

For the white population, the rural-urban migrants had exactly the same level of education as did the urban nonmigrants; therefore, they should not be considered disadvantaged in terms of number of years of school completed. (Quality of education is another matter and will be discussed later in this chapter.) If we look at white rural-urban migrants from the South to urban areas outside the South and compare them with urban nonmigrants outside the South, we have a somewhat different picture. The white rural-urban migrants 17 years of age and over leaving the South have 9.6 years of school completed, compared to 11.1 years of school for nonmigrant urban residents living outside the South. However, much of this difference is a consequence of the age distribution

EGO

of the population classified as "rural to urban migrants" in urban areas. Anyone living in an urban area in 1967 who lived in a rural area at age 16 was classed as a rural-urban migrant regardless of present age or age at migration. When we look at educational levels by age, we find that the educational disadvantage of the white interregional migrants increases with increasing age. For those rural-urban migrants from the South who were 17 to 29 years of age, the median educational level was 11.1 years, which was only 0.3 years lower than the educational level of the urban nonmigrants outside the South. For those aged 30 to 49, the educational level of both groups is lower and the difference is greater, the migrants having 0.7 years less education on the average. For those 50 and over, the educational levels are still lower, and the migrants are 1.1 years behind the nonmigrants in median educational achievement.

When we compare the black rural-urban migrants with the urban black nonmigrant population, we find that the migrants have 1.7 years less education on the average than do the urban nonmigrants (0132). This comparison has the same problems in age distribution that were discussed with whites above. Also, we usually think of Negro rural-urban migrants as moving out of the South. Using the Survey of Economic Opportunity definition of rural-urban migrants, approximately one-half of the Negro rural-urban migrants are in Southern urban areas. There is some evidence that Negro rural-urban migrants in more recent years have disproportionately gone out of the South (0001, 0252, 0781). If we restrict attention to Negroes moving out of the South ~~and~~ to urban areas outside ~~of~~ the South, we see that in this group the migrants have 2.0 years less education than the nonmigrant urban population. However, when age controls are introduced, we find that Negro rural-urban migrants 17 to 29 years of age have 0.3 years more education than nonmigrant Negroes in urban areas outside the South. It is interesting that this group of Negro migrants has a median of 11.1 years of schooling, which is exactly the same as for the white rural-urban migrants out of the South. The rural-urban Negro migrants 30 to 49 years of age have only 8.6 years of education on the average, 2.0 years less than nonmigrant Negroes of the same age in urban areas outside the South. Since it is reasonable to assume that most of this older group migrated some years ago, we can conclude that the educational gap between Negro migrants and nonmigrants in urban areas outside the South has been decreasing and has now disappeared or reversed.

In the previous chapter, it was pointed out that the educational selectivity of outmigrants from rural areas is increasing, and this would lead to the sorts of educational differences by age described above. Since the average age at migration has been relatively stable, we can conclude that the educational gap between rural-urban migrants and urban residents has been narrowing and can be expected to disappear. When we look at the data for Negroes we see that the gap has actually reversed itself, the young inmigrants actually having a slightly higher median years of school completed than the urban nonmigrants.

From the discussion of education we can conclude that recent rural-urban migrants are no longer educationally disadvantaged as compared to the urban residents they are joining when we measure education by years of school completed.

We next turn to the question of how migrants do financially compared to the urban nonmigrant residents. Earlier, Bauder and Burchinal (0043) and Freedman (0310) found farm migrants to have lower incomes than urban natives. Landis (0552) found just the opposite for male rural-urban migrants, but found that female migrants made less money than urban female natives.

More recently, Petersen and Sharp (0883, 0747) and Fried (0316) have found that migrants have lower incomes than urban natives. Specifically for the black racial ~~ethnic~~ group, Marsh (0610) stated that blacks continue to lag behind whites in income, in general. Compared to native urban blacks, inmigrant blacks in general and rural-urban inmigrant blacks in particular were found by Taeuber and Taeuber (0947) and Beale (0054) to have at least equal income levels in comparison with urban natives. Again, more concrete evidence is provided by a look at the USDA-UGA data (0132). If we look at the median income of all individuals classed as rural-urban migrants by the Survey of Economic Opportunity, we find that the whites had a median income of $7855 and the Negroes, a median income of $5116. In the urban population of urban origin, whites had a median income of $8557 and Negroes, a median income of $5105. The most striking point here is the fact that the Negro rural-urban migrants had a slightly higher income than did the urban Negroes of urban origin. (Urban of urban origin population includes nonmigrant urban residents and urban to urban migrants.) The difference is not statistically significant but indicates that in general the rural-urban Negro migrants are doing as well financially as the urban Negroes of urban origin. Both Negro groups are considerably below the income levels of whites, but the figures indicate that being black with a rural background is no more of a handicap in an urban area than just being black. Ritchey (0806) comes to a similar conclusion.

The white rural-urban migrants do not have as high a median income as do white urban residents of urban origin. In order to understand better the income differences, we must examine them by age (0132). In no age group of rural-urban white males is the family income higher than that of similarly aged urban of urban origin males. The difference is least among those white families with male heads 30 to 49 years of age. The income for rural-urban migrants is

Causal relationship has not been established - esp when we know that it's the lower income white who migrate in the first place!

$9500, only $400 below the median income of similar urban residents of urban origin. Among Negroes, the families with male heads under 30 years of age have higher incomes than do those urban families whose male head is of urban origin. Among Negro families with a male head 30 to 49 years of age, the rural-urban migrants have a $300 lower median income than those that are urban of urban origin. Among those 50 and over, the white migrants have a $1300 lower income, while among Negroes the migrants are only $500 below the urban nonmigrants. These figures support the earlier statement that for Negroes in an urban area, having a rural background does not add further to the disadvantage of being black. Whites, however, are disadvantaged by the rural background, although as Masters (0625) indicates, they tend to overcome this disadvantage after several years residence in the urban area.

For families with female heads, the picture is slightly different. Female-headed families have incomes only about half that of male-headed families to start with. Among whites, families with a female head who is a rural-urban migrant have higher incomes than urban families with a female head of urban origin, except where the female head is 50 or more years of age. Among Negroes, only those rural-urban female-headed households where the head is under 30 years of age have higher incomes than similar urban households. In other words, for Negroes the incomes of households in which the head is a rural-urban migrant under 30 years of age tend to have higher incomes than similar urban households regardless of whether the head is male or female. Among whites, households headed by female rural-urban migrants apparently are not disadvantaged financially relative to urban native or in general? female-headed households. Landis (0556) found urban native females better off than rural-urban migrant females, while Petersen and Sharp found the reverse to be the case (0747). Wertheimer (1086) found that women make no additional income by migrating. White households with male heads are disadvantaged by the rural background.

ditto above

The incomes of unrelated individual males who are rural-urban migrants tend to be lower than the incomes of unrelated individual urban residents of urban origin regardless of race. The same is true of unrelated Negro females, but unrelated white females who are rural-urban migrants have higher incomes than unrelated urban white females unless they are 50 years of age or over.

It would be important to know the effects of regional location on income for rural-urban migrants, but none of the studies make regional comparisons. The analysis of data from the Survey of Economic Opportunity being done by Gladys Bowles and others at the University of Georgia (1012) will probably yield information on this point.

The fact that unrelated individual rural-urban migrant Negroes are relatively worse off financially compared to urban residents than are Negro families headed by a rural-urban migrant male may be the result of several gainful workers in a family. No information is available on family income in these categories by number of gainful workers per family. It is possible that the relatively better financial status of young, Negro, rural-urban migrant families is at least partially explainable by number of workers in the family. Information on this point may be developed from the Survey of Economic Opportunity data being analyzed by Gladys Bowles and others at the University of Georgia. It will also be possible to develop information on this point from the 1970 Census Public Use Sample.

We saw that young rural-urban migrant Negroes had as much education as did the urban Negro population they were joining. However, there are serious questions about the quality of the education they received in the South. Table 1 shows estimates of achievement levels in standardized years of schooling by color and place of education. We see from this table, for example, that blacks

Table 1. Achievement of Individuals: Standardized Years of Schooling

	Adjusted Years of Schooling for Years of Schooling Completed	
Region and Race	8 years	12 years
White		
Urban		
Northeast	8.0	12.0
North Central	8.0	11.6
South	7.5	11.1
West	7.7	11.5
Nonurban		
Northeast	7.7	11.1
North Central	7.7	11.1
South	7.1	10.5
West	7.7	11.1
Black		
Urban		
Northeast	5.9	8.7
North Central	6.0	8.7
South	5.3	7.8
West	5.6	8.1
Nonurban		
Northeast	5.6	7.8
North Central	5.6	7.8
South	4.6	6.8
West	5.6	7.8

Source: R. D. Weiss. "The Effect of Education on the Earnings of Black and Whites." Review of Economics and Statistics, (May 1970), pp. 150-159 where it is derived from James S. Coleman. Equality of Educational Opportunity, U. S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 1966.

with eight years of school in the rural South have an achievement level of 4.6 years of schooling. Weiss and Williamson (1081) have examined the effects of quality of education on income using data from the Survey of Economic Opportunity and assuming that place of residence at age 16 was the place at which education was received. They conclude that

> Interregional differences in the quality of black education ~~have relatively~~ weak effects on earning ability, and ~~thus southern rural~~ blacks suffer no competitive disadvantage in urban labor markets, North ~~or South~~; on the contrary, if anything it appears to be the ghetto-educated black who suffers the competitive disadvantage. An obvious explanation for this result is that other features of rural southern origin outweigh the disadvantage of low-quality formal education there. An implication is that the geographical shift in population can only improve black incomes by the positive impact on income from migration and by increasing the number of years of school completed by migrant's children. Education has a strong and consistent effect on black incomes for the sample as a whole, and for each age group in the interaction equation.
>
> --Weiss and Williamson, (1081, p. 12)

Indirectly contradict statements elsewhere

Findings on the occupational mobility of migrants in comparison to urban natives are not generally comparable. For example, while Blau and Duncan (0095) found that within the U. S. careers of migrants as a whole are superior to nonmigrants' careers, there is no consideration given to ethnicity, age, type of migrant, or length of urban residence. Different researchers at different times and for different ethnic groups have found conflicting evidence. Bauder and Burchinal (0043) found conflicting evidence in studies conducted simultaneously in two Iowa cities as to whether white farm-reared male migrants of the same education as urban natives got equal status jobs. They later (0045) found status differences insignificant when controls were added for age and length of time in the city. Freedman (0310) and Landis (0052) earlier found that meaningless w/out length of res control

farm-reared migrants and rural-urban male and female migrants, respectively, did not match the occupational status positions of urban natives. In contrast, Benewitz (0070) found rural male migrants into St. Paul, Minnesota, had occupations not significantly different from St. Paul natives. More recently, in comparing whites and blacks, Tilly (0992) and Petersen and Sharp (0747) found blacks at an occupational disadvantage compared to whites. In restricting the comparison to blacks only, Taeuber and Taeuber (0947) and Tilly (0992) found that all Negro immigrants were more likely to be in white collar occupations tha~~t~~n urban native blacks and that, among nonmetropolitan-origin blacks, the same occupational levels as for urban natives are found, without age controls. However, Petersen and Sharp (0747) note that in many cases qualifications and experience of migrants had little to do with their acquisition of first job, with men and whites having faster entry into the labor force than women and blacks. About 50% of male and 60% of female migrants were found to have entered the city labor force at the same occupational level as their last pre-migration job.

Findings on unemployment levels among migrants in comparison to urban natives are more unanimous in showing that migrants are more likely to be unemployed. Although Beale, Hudson, and Banks (0056) did not find unemployment levels higher in general among farm-migrants in comparison to non-farm natives, they did find higher unemployment rates among migrants at the young adult ages. Petersen and Sharp (0747) and Marsh (0610) found that blacks lag behind white migrants in rates of employment, and Petersen and Sharp confirmed the relatively poorer position of all migrants compared to urban natives, and women in comparison to men, in rates of unemployment. In a study of blacks, Fried (0316) found the highest rates of unemployment among male migrants arriving before age 18, but even those who arrived later had higher rates than

higher than - migrant arriving later
migrants
nonmigrants
female migrants?

the native urban population. He also found the highest rates of unemployment among migrants in the city less than two years.

In the previous chapter we saw that the females leaving the rural areas for cities had appreciably lower fertility rates than did those remaining in rural areas. When compared with urban females of urban origin (0127) the migrants showed almost identical fertility patterns. The black female migrants 35-44 had slightly lower numbers of children even born per 1000 females than did the black urban females. Among whites, the migrants had slightly higher fertility rates. Thus, in fertility as in education and income, the Negro inmigrants resemble the urban population more closely than do the white migrants. Fertility is higher and income is lower for Negroes than whites in all groups, but educational levels of Negroes and whites under 30 years of age are almost identical.

A slightly higher proportion of rural-urban migrants have work-limiting health conditions than do urban residents of urban origin among both whites and Negroes. This is probably a reflection of the poorer health care of people in rural areas. Among urban Negro males of urban origin, 14 percent have work-limiting health conditions. This is lower than the 17 percent figure for rural-urban migrant Negro males, but higher than the 11 percent for white urban males of urban origin and almost certainly reflects the poorer medical care received by urban Negroes. These figures are for males 17 to 64, so the age distribution should not be a major factor. Freedman (0306) earlier found the health of farm migrants to be poorer than that of the general urban population.

The proportions of the population in poverty were consistent with the income distributions discussed earlier. White rural-urban migrants had slightly higher proportions in poverty than did the white urban population of urban origin (0054, 0127). The picture for Negroes was mixed (0127), with some categories of Negro rural-urban migrants having higher proportions in poverty than did their urban counterparts, while other categories had lower proportions in poverty, but in general, the proportions were similar to those of urban Negroes (0127).

money

Since not all people in poverty receive welfare assistance, especially in rural areas, the patterns of receipt of welfare are similar to but not identical with the patterns of poverty. Among the white families whose heads are rural-urban migrants, 4.0 percent received some form of welfare assistance (0127). Only 2.3 percent of white families whose heads are urban of urban origin receive welfare assistance. Among Negro families whose heads are rural-urban migrants, 17.3 percent receive welfare assistance as compared with 15.6 percent of urban Negro families whose heads are of urban origin. Similar patterns exist for unrelated individuals as for families. Fried (0316, p. 316) found similar proportions of black migrants and nonmigrants receiving welfare, and Struening, _et al_. (0933) found black migrants do not end up on welfare roles more quickly than permanent residents.

In general, it would be helpful to know more about the differences between rural-farm and rural-nonfarm migrants in comparison with urban natives. While data referenced here do indicate about the same overall findings for farm migrants as for all rural-urban migrants, there have been few researchers who have distinguished the two components of the rural-urban migrant groups and presented separate analysis for each. Some researches have classified rural-urban migrants by size of place of origin (0316, e.g.), but again, not all of these data are comparable.

Freedman and Freedman (0310) found farm-reared migrants more concentrated in smaller nonfarm places, older than the nonfarm-reared population and greatly overrepresented in low status positions in education, occupation, and family income, but their data, as they point out, may not be valid for more recent migrants. Recently, Bowles (0127) found the incidence of poverty higher among rural-urban migrants of farm origin than among those of nonfarm origin.

Finally, some emphasis must be given to the findings of differential selectivity of migration for whites as compared to blacks in explaining how well both groups do in the city. Hamilton (0398) in 1959 found migration from the South for 1940-1950 to be selective of the better educated only among nonwhites, but that net migration of the adult white population was largely selective of the poorly educated and only moderately selective of the well educated. While white migrants do better than Negro migrants overall, there is evidence (0781) that whites were less well off in their origin areas compared to white nonmigrants, whereas the opposite was found to be the case for blacks. Petersen and Sharp (0747) have suggested that whites move to get jobs, but blacks move to get better jobs, because whites were more frequently unemployed prior to their move.

Findings on both ethnic groups once they are in the city from many researchers show whites getting the better jobs faster and improving their incomes over time in the city, although (higher proportions of them compared to urban natives are in poverty than for blacks compared to urban native blacks.) This, again, points up the disadvantage a migrant suffers just in being black. move

In general, we can conclude that rural-urban migrants are much more like the urban population which they have joined than like the rural population they have left. The similarities are greater for Negroes than for whites, but this may be a consequence of the generally lower status of Negroes in urban areas. However, the evidence indicates a higher selectivity for Negro rural-urban migrants and shows that among urban Negroes, having a rural background is not a financial disadvantage. Among urban whites a rural background is a financial disadvantage, although the disadvantage decreases with increasing time in the city.

again & again the
rural disadvantage first
then & follows

Chapter 5. Adjustment of Migrants in Urban Areas

Much of the discussion in the previous chapter dealt with adjustment of migrants in urban areas, but primarily with economic adjustment--income, occupation, welfare and poverty. The present chapter will emphasize other aspects.

The term "adjustment" encompasses so many variables that it is difficult to isolate its various components and deal with them in any meaningful way in a short space. However, some general comments may be made, and areas of agreement and disagreement may be pointed out. One major problem in dealing with findings in this area is that the various indices and other measures used to denote adjustment are not always comparable and often span several disciplines, with results reflecting different approaches. Too, there is the problem of "middle-class" bias charges that lead to the argument that findings for sub-culture groups are virtually worthless for measures of other than economic adjustment. Nevertheless, in recent years enough work has been done by researchers from varying disciplines and ethnic backgrounds to provide a body of general knowledge in many important areas.

Motivations for migration not only determine the success or failure of the venture in economic terms, but Bauder and Burchinal (0183) have pointed out that motivations also affect adjustment to the new environment to a substantial degree. It here becomes evident that it is very difficult to separate economic and non-economic adjustment factors. Windham (1103) has found that identification with the city for migrants is itself based on how well they are doing both socially and economically. Petersen and Sharp (0747) point out that for migrants, where economic advance is clearly evident, satisfaction with (therefore, adjustment to) the move is nearly unanimous. While there is substantial evidence that length of time in the city is probably the most important factor in adjustment (0677, 0710), there are other intervening factors more important for the recent migrant.

One of the better established findings regarding rural-urban migration is that most of the migrants have friends and/or relatives in the urban area to which they are moving (0781, 0747, 0001, 0316, 0999). There is much support for the finding that kin either provide the reasons for the move themselves, or provide the major criterion for the choice of destination (0781, 0001, 0591, 0610, 0821, 0690, 0100, 0163, 0858, 0859, 0982, 0993). While the function of relatives and friends may vary from one class or ethnic group of migrants to another, there can be no doubt that their influence on the adjustment of newcomers is crucial.

For example, Crawford (0223, 0224) found that support from the family of orientation for migration can overcome the inhibiting effects on prospective migrants of attachment to a rural system or community, and this is especially likely to be true for blacks and other ethnic minority groups who have the added prospect of encountering discrimination in the city. Martin (0615), Rubin (0821) and Nelson (0690) found information provided to prospective migrants by friends and relatives in distant cities the sole or primary source of information about the cities.

Jakubauskas and Palomba (0487) found that hostility of the new community is not as significant as isolation from friends and relatives in the process of adjustment for migrants. Rose and Warshay (0814) found presence of friends and relatives in the city more important for adjustment than rural-urban background. Litwak (0583), Omari (0710), Schwarzweller and Crowe (0860), Schwarzweller and Seggar (0861), Tilly and Brown (0993), and Schwarzweller and Brown (0858, 0859) all attest to the role of relatives in aiding in migrants' adjustment. However, a number of researchers also point out differences in this role depending on social class of migrants (0102, 0316, 0858, 0859). Blumberg and Bell (0102) believe that kin may be more psychologically supportive than functionally effective. Other researchers point to the "cushion" and "haven of safety" function of friends and relatives (0102, 0163, 0583, 0814, 0858, 0859, 0993). In fact, this supportive function provided by relatives may ultimately be maladaptive. Rose and Warshay (0814) found that although presence of relatives and friends in the city militate against the migrants' feeling disheartened, depressed, or pessimistic, it may also retard the migrants' development of new community contacts and participation in the wider society.

Nevertheless, relatives and friends do offer substantial help in providing temporary housing, in giving job leads and information, and in helping newcomers to find their way around the city (0163, 0781, 0993, 0999, 0102, 0228, 0316, 0583, 0610, 0858, 0859, 0860, 0861). A very high percentage of all rural-urban migrants spend their first night in the urban area with friends and relatives (0781, 0316, 0747).

White rural-urban migrants are more likely to have a job lined up or a job lead before moving than are Negro migrants (0781). Also, the rate of entry into the labor force is quicker and higher for whites and for males than for Negroes or females (0747, 0316, 0781). Various studies differ on findings concerning length of time migrant groups are in the city before nearly all of them are employed, but the studies were done in different locations under differing economic conditions. Most studies agree that there is not a long period of unemployment following migration to an urban area, although this does obviously occur in some cases.

Data from the Survey of Economic Opportunity (0132) discussed in the previous chapter indicate that a higher proportion of the rural-urban migrants than of the urban residents have work-limiting health conditions. However, Fried (0316) found black migrants into Boston as a whole to show relatively little difference from nonmigrant blacks on measures of physical health status or self-reported experiences of illness, and Streuning, et al. (0933) found that for black and Puerto Rican inmigrants there was no difference in comparison with nonmigrants on social and physical health problems. Findings on social problems of migrants are scant and conflicting. For Anglos, Thompson (0982) found that migrants had high rates of absenteeism from work, while for blacks, Tilly (0992) found that rates of crime and delinquency were lower for migrants than for nonmigrant natives.

The relative differences between migrants and nonmigrants in mental health conditions have been studied extensively without firm agreement on conclusions. Most studies find higher rates of mental hospital admissions among the rural-urban migrants (0606, 0568, 0675, 0933), but some (0531, 0532) have found higher rates among Negro urban residents than among Negro migrants from the South. Fried (0316) found self-reported incidence of moderate to severe emotional difficulties more frequent among migrant than among nonmigrant black natives in Boston. However, Sanua (0836) feels that statistics on admissions to mental hospitals are too crude to use when studying mental health of migrants. Fabrega (0284) points to cultural differences in the diagnosis of type and severity of illness, with negative consequences for Mexican-Americans in particular. Finally, in studying the consequences of urban migration for suicide, Breed (0143) found them to vary by sex, race, duration of residence, and the difference between life styles in the old and new community.

If the migrant joins a "colony" of individuals like himself, the probability of mental illness is reduced. There ~~is~~ are not enough data to verify the theory, but there is some evidence in support of it and much sense to the idea that the psychological support function provided by kin does much to prevent isolation and subsequent trauma (0143, 0102, 0928, 0163, 0270, 0487, 0860, 0861, 0928).

The self-reported sense of well-being that a migrant might have after moving to an urban area is also indicative of his adjustment. The TRACOR study (0781) found that the proportion reporting that they were happier in the urban environment than they had been in the rural area was highest among Mexican-Americans, next highest (about 80 percent) for Negroes, and down to 60 percent for Anglos. The Anglos expressed more general dissatisfaction with urban living, while Negro females mentioned unhappiness with housing more frequently than any other item. The Cleveland study (0747) did not find Negroes less satisfied with housing than whites, but did find females less satisfied with housing than males. Fried (0316, p. 325) found that the black migrants into Boston expressed about the same "life satisfaction" as did the Boston-born blacks.

McQueen (0641) found among migrant blacks that those who were most dissatisfied with their situations in the community were also the most alienated and apprehensive.

Reported sense of well-being often relates to resolution of problems migrants initially encountered in the city. Locating adequate jobs and housing, overcoming the sense of loss of close ties to people and home left behind, and conquering social isolation are all problems Fried (0316) found reported by migrants. Jakubauskas and Palomba (0487) confirm the on-going stress of social isolation for migrants, especially females. Dissatisfaction with housing and jobs (0781, 0747) have been found frequently to coincide with feelings of frustration and lack of success.

The effect of migration on family composition is of interest. Three studies (0781, 0099, 0993) reported that blacks were more likely to have relatives present in the urban area than were whites, but at the same time migration was more likely to be disruptive to the immediate family among blacks.

Several studies have examined social participation of migrants (0781, 0316, 0747, 0866), but all have used different measures of social participation. There is some agreement that Anglo migrants have higher levels of social participation than do black migrants, but there is conflicting evidence about the difference in social participation between migrants and nonmigrants.

Blizzard and Macklin (0097) found in 1952 that rural migrants participated in fewer organizations and took part in less informal activities than either the urban migrant or nonmigrant. However, the rural migrant was found to contribute proportionately more to the leadership in organizations than the nonmigrant.

Freedman and Freedman (0310) found differences in social participation patterns between farm-reared and nonfarm-reared migrants to vary with the type of activity being considered. Their most significant finding was that the farm-reared have less confidence in U. S. political institutions. Giffin (0348) did not find Southern Appalachian migrants differing in their social participation patterns significantly from those from other regions; however, they were found to participate less frequently in voluntary organizations such as lodges, unions, neighborhood clubs, and community center activities. Jitodai (0498), Sharp (0881), Windham (1102), Zimmer (1120), and Tilly and Brown (0993) all found that migrants participate less in voluntary organizations than nonmigrants, but Zimmer found that differences in participation rates decrease with increased time in the city.

Sharp (0882) found that voting behavior appeared to be related more to length of time in the city than to place and type previous residence. Tilly and Brown (0993) express the idea that migrants with extensive kin may participate less because the kin, in aiding in adjustment, actually function as a barrier to integration in the city, an idea noted also by Rose and Warshay (0814).

A final aspect of adjustment to be considered is the extent to which speech patterns and language are dysfunctional to migrants. There is not much evidence in this area, although one frequently hears of disparaging remarks made by natives against newcomers of various immigrant and ethnic backgrounds, and everyone in town knows where the "Little Italy's," "China Towns," and the like are located. Most of the research in this area has been done on Mexican-Americans, with findings pointing to the corruption of native speech patterns and conflicts in "old" and "new" cultural values. Samora and Lamanna (0831) have found Mexican-American group assimilation limited and slow, and Derbyshire (0249) found that nonmigrants may have found it necessary to "overidentify" with traditional Mexican role models to counteract the "cultural stripping" process of American society. Migrants were found to be more positively oriented, but their adaptive behavior may eventually become maladaptive. "Tex-Mex" is spoken in many Mexican-American homes in cities throughout Texas, the language being intelligible only to Texas Mexican-Americans, not to other Spanish-speaking individuals. It is widely known that the evolution of this language pattern occurred in the process of acculturation and that it contributes greatly to language learning difficulties in both English and Spanish for Mexican-American youth.

Adjustment is a very difficult concept to work with because the detailed characteristics of adjustment vary from one culture to another and from one situation to another. A migrant may be well adjusted to the smaller group of which he is a part but may not be at all integrated into the broader community. Only when lack of adjustment leads to economic difficulties, mental illness, or other problems, do we have any sort of objective criteria on lack of adjustment. The previous chapter indicates that migrants make satisfactory economic adjustments. Research workers do not agree regarding the association between migration and mental illness. The one conclusion that can be drawn is that there is no clear pattern of failure of migrants to adjust to urban living.

Chapter 6. Return Migration to Rural Areas

One of the early generalizations about migration made by Ravenstein in 1889 (0976, p. 230ff.) was, "Each main current of migration produces a compensating countercurrent." The emphasis in this report has been almost entirely on the rural-urban migrants, but we should not be unaware of the fact that there is a flow from urban to rural areas. The relative size of each of these streams varies from place to place, from year to year, from one age group to another and from one ethnic group to another. The absolute sizes of these streams are unknown because virtually all data collection procedures obtain data on some sort of net movement. In asking place of residence five years ago, the Census misses intermediate moves which may have carried a person from a rural area to an urban area and back ~~to a rural~~ area during the five-year period. The Social Security continuous work history sample provides a continuous record of certain sorts of migration but misses people not in covered occupations. Individuals in agricultural employment are especially likely to be missed.

bibliography reference

Hathaway (1007, p. 9) has suggested that there is a high rate of return to farm employment: "...each year there appear to be about 90 percent as many people move back into farm employment as move out of it." As Beale points out (1007, p. 12) these figures are almost certainly the result of the inadequacies of the Social Security data which Hathaway was using.

The Survey of Economic Opportunity (0132) estimates that in 1967 there were slightly more than 8,300,000 people living in rural areas that had been living in urban areas at age 16. This compares with more than 18,100,000 people living in urban areas that had been living in rural areas at age 16. It must be remembered that rural includes rural-nonfarm as well as rural-farm. Approximately 11 percent of the rural to urban migrants were Negro, while less than 4 percent of the urban to rural migrants were Negro. Thus, we see that blacks were far less likely than whites to move from urban to rural areas. This resulted in a higher net migration of blacks into urban areas relative to the total number of moves made. This is frequently referred to as a higher "efficiency of migration." [Efficiency = (net migration) ÷ (inmigrants + outmigrants).] Approximately 53 percent of the migrants were female, regardless of whether they were black or white, moving to urban or to rural areas.

Hamilton (0403) in 1964 also found that the tendency for older people to move back to the South is more pronounced among whites than among blacks and that there is a very small amount of black remigration to the South. Petersen and Sharp (0747) found that whites were more likely than blacks to be considering a return to the origin area, and Abt (0001) predicted that whites would be more likely than blacks to return.

Data from the Survey of Economic Opportunity (0132) show that among whites, about 46 percent of the individuals classed as rural to urban migrants were 50 or more years of age. The proportion was slightly lower but similar for Negroes. However, among white urban to rural migrants, only about 29 percent were 50 years of age or over. In other words, among whites the urban to rural migrants were less concentrated at ages above 50. It must be remembered that these ages do not refer to age at migration but the age in 1967 of individuals who had different places of residence at age 16. Among blacks the age differences were not significant between rural to urban and urban to rural migrants because of the small differences in percentages and also the small size of sample. The fact that whites who had moved to rural areas were younger than whites who had moved to urban areas suggests that some of the movement was to suburban rural nonfarm areas.

at the time of the survey or the time of migration?

However, Bryant and Wilber (0172), in discussing net migration in Mississippi for 1950-1960, found the dependency ratio in the rural population to have increased partly as a result of immigration of retirement aged persons. However, what proportion of these were returnees was not ascertained.

The 1955-1960 migration data from the 1960 Census do not provide detailed information on urban to rural migration. However, on the basis of the negligible proportion of blacks in rural areas outside the South, we can reason that virtually all of the migration of blacks from metropolitan areas to rural areas is included in the black migration into the South. Not all black migration into the South is migration into rural areas, however. The figures from the SEO data given above (less than four percent of urban to rural migrants are black) provide some basis for assuming that most of the black migration into the South is into Southern urban areas. The 1955-1960 Census data do show (0772) that during this period there were three times as many blacks who moved out of the South as moved into the South. Of the blacks that moved into the South during this period (and we assume that this group includes nearly all the urban to rural migrant blacks), two out of every three were returning to the census division of their birth. Therefore, we do know that during this period, most of the black migration into the South was return migration. The data indicate that only a small proportion of it was return migration to rural areas.

There is very little data on what kinds of people returnees are and why they choose to move back to areas from which they migrated. There is, however, a great deal of speculation. Bishop (0089) felt that those who move back to rural areas either have a preference for living there or because they are disillusioned with nonfarm employment, while Fried (0316) made the following unsubstantiated observation: "Those migrants (blacks) who have gained less and who can anticipate, therefore, a relatively minor economic loss which might be compensated by social gains if they returned to their places of origin, often return...."

Beale, Hudson and Banks (0056) in using 1958 CPS data, found no sharp differences in the characteristics of return migrants compared to farm people who had not left the farm or who left and remained away. Form and Rivera (0299) in studying Mexican-American returnees into New Mexico in 1958, found that returnees "tended to be found in the lower middle ranges of the status, class and power orders of the community." Taylor (0967) found that despite services such as relocation allowances, temporary housing, job leads, social services and emergency funds, 40% of Indians relocated by the Area Redevelopment Administration returned to reservations, but characteristics of returnees compared to stayers were not obtained. Examination of data presented by Reagan (0796) shows that Mexican-American labor mobility project drop-outs who returned to the rural area as compared to those who stayed on the job were younger, less well educated and had a greater proportion ~~with~~ four or more children. Abt (0001) found that the majority of returnees they interviewed gave responses that would point to choice rather than necessity concerning return to the rural area. While 17.1% of black returnees, 32.4% of white returnees, and 25.7% of Mexican-American returnees came back for economic reasons, there is no way to determine which were "failures" and which were returning in response to job offers or news of job opportunities. Also, the Abt findings are clouded somewhat by the fact that they classed places of less than 25,000 population as rural so their finding such a high proportion of returnees (25-37%) among the ethnic groups is not surprising. Nevertheless, the responses they obtained from returnees concerning the move back home may provide some insights.

Among the returnees Abt (0001) interviewed, about half came back home because they were "homesick." Some returned when they became ill, and some women expressed the idea that the countryside and country schools were healthier places to raise children. Some individuals did move back because they had found jobs in the rural area or because they deplored housing conditions in the city. (However, Pearson (0734) found inadequate housing in large cities not to be a factor in backwash migration.) Abt concludes, "Those people who returned to the rural area because they preferred the housing and schools there, or because they wanted to see their families again, most frequently say they might move back to the city. People who complained of the rush and loneliness of the city when they came home were significantly less desirous of moving again."

The TRACOR study (0781, Vol. 1, p. 4) reported the results of attempting to locate and interview rural residents who had moved to an urban area and then returned to the rural area. Among the Anglos in Butler County, Kentucky, 60 percent of the rural residents interviewed had lived in an urban area at one time or another. They preferred living in the rural area, wanted to bring up their families there, and, having left to find work, returned when they were able to get employment in one of the small industries that had located in the area. Only six blacks were found who had lived in rural Yazoo County, moved to an urban area, and then returned to the rural area. Only one of these stated that he preferred the rural area, and most of the others had returned for family reasons. The Mexican-Americans who had returned to rural South Texas after living in an urban area probably should not have been classed as urban migrants. All of them had maintained their ties and many, their homes, and had never had any idea other than eventually returning to South Texas.

Several studies have asked rural to urban migrants whether or not they have considered returning to the rural area. Of the individuals interviewed by Abt (0001) in urban areas, they found less than 7 percent of blacks answering "yes" to the question, "Do you think you'll ever go back to live in the rural area?" Twelve percent of the urban Mexican-Americans and 26 percent of the Anglos answered "yes" to the question. The TRACOR study (0781, Vol. III, pp. 150, 198) also found that Anglos had the highest proportion who had ever considered returning to the rural area and Negroes, the lowest proportion, with Mexican-Americans falling in between.

In considering what factors would induce migrants to move back to their origin areas, Abt (0001) found willingness to move back strongly related to ownership (by the migrant or his family) of property in the rural area. In the TRACOR (0781) study, 74% of Anglo migrants said they would return to rural Kentucky given the proper economic and occupational opportunities, a comment echoed by Chicago Mexican-American migrants concerning South Texas. Negro male and female migrants in Chicago said they also would consider returning to rural Mississippi if there were sufficient job opportunities, but they also specified that reduced discrimination and the opportunity to own their own homes would have to be present.

Thus, it is clear that findings on returnees are fragmentary. It is generally assumed that among blacks the return migrants to rural areas are mainly those who failed to make the grade in urban areas. Hathaway (1007) gives this as the reason that the residual rural to urban migrants are doing so well. Actually, the entire subject of return migration to rural areas needs much research because relatively little is known for sure. A comparison of rural population, initial migrants, and return migrants would shed much light on the dynamics of migration. There is much evidence, as cited above, to believe that the characteristics of returnees will vary ~~between~~ among ethnic groups.

Chapter 7. Effects of Migration on Rural Areas

The effects of outmigration on rural communities have not received much study in recent years, although many authors have assumed negative effects or stated these in general terms. Rural sociologists started studying rural communities with Charles Galpin's The Social Anatomy of an Agricultural Community published by the University of Wisconsin in 1915. During the Depression Years the rural communities received a good deal of attention, but there has been relatively little attention given to the effects of outmigration on the structure of rural communities since World War II. (For bibliography prior to 1950 see Ferris, (0292).)

Most studies of rural communities emphasize the conditions leading to migration rather than looking at the consequences of migration itself. Rubin (0820) says, "If we consider outmigration to be a measure of the inability of a society to sustain its members, then southern rural folk society gives indications of dissolution and change." He points out that older people living in the rural area were least optimistic about local opportunities, and that they had watched many of their friends and family leave, as well as the decline of local organizations from lack of membership. However, he does not assess the impact of the outmigration itself.

A point that must be noted here is that the number of rural communities does not seem to be decreasing, as is assumed by many. In 1960 there were 11,295 places under 2,500 population. This was 133 more than there had been in 1950. The net gain was the result of 523 new places, a "dropout" of 129 places, a loss of 312 due to growth to a larger size category, and a gain of 51 that decreased in size to this category. The places that were under 2,500 population in 1950 had an average population gain between 1950 and 1960 of approximately nine percent (0322).

Many of these places are suburban rather than rural, but the evidence does not support the idea that rural communities are disappearing from the American scene.

Two consequences of heavy outmigration noted in Chapter 1 were reduced mobility potentials for rural areas and high dependency ratios. Beale (0053) notes that, with the continued outmigration of young people and young adults, an area eventually develops a disproportionate number of older people and relatively few young people of childbearing age. Since older people have higher death rates, the area has more deaths than births, and there is a natural decrease. From 1955 to 1961, the peak of high fertility rates, 98 counties showed a natural decrease for at least one year.

Fuguitt (0322) provides further documentation for Beale's point that outmigration leaves an excess proportion of older people. He shows that the dependency ratio (people under 15 and 65 and over per 100 people 15-64) is higher in the rural parts of the United States and is even higher in villages than in the rural farm areas. The high dependency ratio in the villages is due to an excess of people 65 and over. The dependency ratio of nonwhites in these villages in the South is quite high, 103, due to both large proportions of children and older people. The dependency ratio in declining villages is even higher than in growing villages.

Bauder (0041) in 1950 found that in 19 Iowa counties outmigration was one important factor in changing the age distribution of the population drastically, especially in the 25-30 age range. Continued outmigration had reduced the proportion of persons under 10 years of age relative to the state or nation and also the proportion of women of childbearing age sufficiently to cause reduction in crude birth rates. Pedersen (0741) substantiated in 1953 that heavy outmigration from the Mississippi Delta had resulted in a high dependency ratio for the region. In examining net migration for all of Mississippi from 1950 to 1960, Bryant and Wilber (0172) found that "a disproportionately large segment of dependent age persons resulted from the combined factors of heavy outmigration of persons in their productive years, in-movement of retirement age persons, and the high rate of natural increase." Doerflinger and Marshall (0254) found for a Wisconsin county in 1960 that high outmigration had resulted in a high proportion of older people and a low one of working-age persons when compared to the state as a whole, giving a high dependency ratio for the area. Mueller (0668) notes that after substantial outmigration, the increasing proportion of old people left in depressed areas, the low educational level, and the low income levels all act to discourage outmigration. The President's National Advisory Commision on Rural Poverty (0768) has said that as a result of outmigration from rural poverty areas the adult population has increasingly become one of fewer abilities and resources. Mueller and Lean (0669) note that "outmigration usually deprives depressed areas of some of the most desirable elements of their labor force--the young, the well-educated, and the skilled. Net outmigration deprives such areas of some business and community leadership." They note the reduced mobility potential of the remaining population.

The reduction in the number employed in agriculture has been shown in Chapter 1 to indicate that mechanization and other agricultural advances are reducing the number of people in open country, rural farm areas. This is especially true for blacks. Villages (places under 2,500 population) have continued to grow, though not as rapidly as the total population, and a small proportion have declined in population. Since most services and facilities for rural people have been centered in villages or larger urban areas, there is no reason to believe that there has been a reduction in services available to rural dwellers as a consequence of high rates of outmigration. However, since the outmigration has removed a disproportionate number of young adults from the population, the burden of support of children and older people is greater on those remaining. Small municipalities have never been efficient in providing services (0592), and the changing age distribution with an excess of persons 65 and over does not bode well for improved efficiency.

In its report, *Urban and Rural America: Policies for Future Growth*, the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations points out that since the outmigration involves the better educated, younger, and more skilled workers, we can expect that "many rural areas will suffer from a further siphoning off of the young and able work force with resultant greater concentration of older and unskilled among those remaining, and a continuing decline in the capacity of rural communities to support basic public services." (0004, p. 124)

Costs of migration, provision of public services, and sense of community are all inextricably bound up in the problems areas of heavy outmigration face.

Maddox (0600) states, "The farm families, educational institutions, and business firms that are left behind in areas from which outmigration occurs bear a heavy share of the total costs associated with the movement of people out of agriculture. In those communities in which off-farm migration is limited mainly to maturing young people, the principal costs associated with it are those of rearing and educating children who move away about the time they reach a productive age. The costs are much more extensive, however, in areas where farming is virtually abandoned. In such areas, total income will decline, and, as a result, the capital value of fixed assets, both public and private, will decrease; the per capita costs of maintaining essential public services for the few remaining residents will rise; and many local businesses will go bankrupt or be forced to move to other areas. Thus, capital and entrepreneurship, as well as labor, are drained away with the results that large areas stagnate or remain dormant." Pedersen (0735) in 1956 discussed the community investment in educational facilities and other public services and the family investment in food, clothing and medical care to raise the young people who eventually migrate. Long and Dorner (0586) estimated the costs to Tennessee in family and community expenditures in rearing eventual outmigrants, and Bryant and Wilber (0172) found that if investment and production losses during the 1950's were added together, Mississippi's migration loss cost the state an average of $700 million a year for that decade. Doerflinger and Marshall (0254) found that outmigration from a Wisconsin county had resulted in a lower population density which raised the costs of services. Brown and Hillery (0162) found that because of depopulation of mining and subsistence agricultural areas, the Appalachian region areas have faced serious consequences of adjustment: maintenance and support of local government services and school systems, reorganization of the total institutional structure and so forth. Taeuber (0939) found in 1959 that "the decrease in the number of farms and of the farm population has created significant problems of organization for agencies that are accustomed to functioning on a county basis...." The President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty (0768) has shown that as a result of outmigration from poverty areas, public services have become grossly inadequate, as tax bases have been eroded. Raup (0792) in 1960 examined the relationship between outmigration of farm population and availability of local services in small, rural communities. He said, "The explanation for small town decline is not necessarily to be found in immutable trends toward fewer and bigger farms and toward business in marketing and retail functions. At least part of the explanation lies in the absence, at the small town level, of services that we recognize at the farm level under the names of supervised credit and agricultural research and extension.... Because of migration, some of these communities are surplus to our needs for the services they have traditionally performed. The extent to which they are 'surplus' will not be accurately appraised until we have explored more thoroughly the steps that could be taken to render them economically viable." Anderson (0011), Gee (0341), and Hathaway (0430) all note the negative effects of outmigration on the rural community.

What?

Brunner, (0170), using 1935-40 data, ranked states according to gain or loss by migration and by support of education per classroom unit. These had a positive correlation of +.51. The costs of education associated with outmigration have been mentioned above.

One study (0781) reported declining school enrollments among blacks and a reduction in the number of black school teachers as a consequence of migration in one county in Mississippi. One church declined from 400 to 100 contributing members during a 15-year period, with the decline attributed to outmigration of blacks. Some of the whites felt that the black outmigration was good for the county, while others felt that the "best Negroes" were leaving. The same study reported that in a rural area of Anglo outmigration in Kentucky, there was an awareness of the loss of population due to outmigration but that the village had continued to grow. The residents would like to increase industrial employment in order to keep more of their young people home, but felt that with the limited number of jobs, those people remaining were better off as a consequence of the outmigration.

The President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty (0768) has stated that "the community in rural poverty areas has all but disappeared as an effective institution." School consolidation, which will doubtlessly continue in rural areas, will probably contribute to a reduced "sense of community." The provision of services from central locations in larger towns in order to achieve more efficiency will also contribute to less "sense of belonging" in many rural areas. However, counter-balancing this trend are the improved communication and transportation facilities that make it possible for a person to be a part of a much larger community and not be dependent on those in his immediate geographic locality.

However, many of the rural poor do not have access to improved communication or the services available in nearby towns (TRACOR, 0781, Chapter 8) and are therefore probably more isolated than before. Such situations seem likely to increase the propensity to migrate.

Chapter 8. Effects of Migration on Urban Areas

Rural to urban migration has accounted for an appreciable portion of total urban growth in the United States. Kaufman and Wilber (0515) show the appreciable effects of migration on total urban growth, and Hitt (0456) cites the contribution of outmigrants from twelve Southern and Border states in contributing to urban and suburban growth. According to data from the Survey of Economic Opportunity (0132), of the 88,000,000 urban residents 17 years of age and over in 1967, nearly 21 percent of them lived in rural areas at age 16. There were approximately 18,000,000 individuals classed as rural to urban migrants but only 8,000,000 classed as urban to rural. Gupta (0384) found net inmigration associated with increases in the sex ratio, population density, educational level, median family income, and percent employed in manufacture.

There is some evidence, however, that the role of migration in contributing to total urban population growth is declining. The Survey of Economic Opportunity data (0132) can be utilized to examine the age distribution of rural to urban migrants compared with the total urban population. Comparisons are limited to the population 17 and over since the definition of migration depends on place of residence at age 16. In the total urban population 17 and over in 1967, 36 percent were 50 years of age and over, while 46 percent of the rural-urban migrants were 50 and over. Similar proportions of each group were in the 30 to 49 age group (35 percent), and the rural to urban migrants had correspondingly fewer in the 17 to 29 age group, 19 percent as contrasted with 28 percent of urban residents. The older ages of the rural to urban migrants reflects the decreasing importance of migration in the total population growth of urban areas, a larger proportion of the urban population increase in recent years coming from natural increase rather than migration. The age distribution of the black rural to urban migrants does not differ significantly from that of the white rural to urban migrants. The similarity of the effects of black and white migration on the urban population is reflected in the fact that of the urban population 17 to 29 years of age in 1967, 14.2 percent were rural to urban migrants, and this percentage was exactly the same for blacks and whites. In the urban population 50 and over, 33 percent of the black population and 26 percent of the white population were rural to urban migrants. The fact that these figures are higher than those for the 17 to 29 age group again reflects the decreasing importance of migration in urban growth. The slightly higher figure for blacks 50 and over indicates that in earlier years migration was relatively more important in the growth of the urban black population than it was in the growth of the urban white population.

The effects of migration on urban areas have been the subjects of many heated arguments. In 1950, Hamilton (0398) found that net migration had substantially lowered the educational level of the urban and rural nonfarm areas to which migrants had gone both in and out of the South. Hodgell (0458) stated that farm-to-city migration has greatly complicated the rapid growth of slums, housing for minority groups, functional illiteracy, suburban sprawl, employment and industrialization problems in cities. Mickens (0646) notes the conflicting patterns in urban migration and job decentralization. Kain and Persky (0508) state that "the roots of much of the poverty in the metropolitan North are traceable to" inmigration of rural Southerners, especially blacks and Appalachian whites. Boone and Kurland (0116) believes that migration of the rural poor has produced urban ghettos, which are "powder kegs." Borts (0118) states that the continued migration of the rural poor to Northern and Western cities has changed the quality of urban life. Many city dwellers are moving to the suburbs as a result, need some explanation of the dichotomy between views

and many, Borts feels, would probably gladly finance a center where the rural poor could learn about city life "somewhere else." On the other hand, Bacon (0029) found that "poor rural-urban South-North migrants of both races constitute a minority of poor persons in Northern ghettos and slums of cities." Therefore, central city conditions must not be "blamed" on migrants from the rural South. Ritchey (0806) concludes that rural-urban migrants are "scapegoats" of those pointing the finger of blame for central city problems, and Wertheimer (1086) believes that the problems of central cities are related more to the outmigration of whites than to the inmigration of rural migrants, particularly blacks.

The prevailing popular attitude about the effects of inmigration on urban areas is most adequately depicted in a description given by Maddox (0600) in 1960:

> "When inmigration is rapid and relatively large, it is likely to have several undesirable results. Public expenditures for schools, police protection, and similar governmental services will probably expand more rapidly than tax revenues and will still be lower relative to need than before the inmigration became significant. In many cases, the average educational and cultural level of the urban population will be lowered because of the influx of poorly educated people from rural areas. The places in which both social and private costs of population shifts are most pronounced are in and around large metropolitan areas, while, at the same time, many urbanites are shifting to the suburbs. Mounting social costs of various types result from the distribution of population which is being brought about by the two streams of migration. One such result, for instance, is a rapid growth of congested city slums in the old residential areas of many large cities. There is also a vast utilization of capital for houses, shopping centers, streets, schools, and related facilities in the suburban areas, which tends to keep capital expensive for all sectors of the economy. Likewise, there is an inordinate amount of travel and waste of time in

> going to and from the daily job as a result of the great distances between places of residence and places of work. One of the heavy costs of the present pattern of off-farm migration is the continued concentration of low-income, farm-reared people in the congested slums of large cities. The resulting psychic costs to the individuals involved must be extremely high. It is a way of life which is completely foreign to their past experiences, and commonly results in high rates of crime, juvenile delinquency and absenteeism from jobs. These in turn result in heavy public expenditures for police protection and welfare activities."

It has been shown in other chapters that welfare costs and social problems of cities are not related to recent migrants' arrivals. In the previous chapter we had an estimate of the cost to an area of the outmigration of young adults that had been reared and educated, but migrated out before being economically productive (assuming opportunities existed so that they might have been employed). Rural to urban migration provides an urban area with additions to the labor force that have cost the urban area nothing to rear and educate. Sjaastad (0896) has pointed out that the relations between private and social costs of, and returns to, migration at best depends upon market structure, resource mobility in general, and revenue policies of state and local governments. However, Crowley (0226) has estimated the cost to cities per inmigrant. The cost estimates are based on expenditures for highways, education, public health, Social Security and so on (welfare costs are not specified), per person by income category, as well as tax income from each person by income category. He estimates a national median cost to urban areas of approximately $72 per inmigrant. The estimates show a wide range of variation from one city to another ($12 to $300). He discusses some questionable assumptions of the study and concedes "that those who impose a cost in 1960 may be of net benefit in later years."

What does this mean?

If Crowley is correct that each inmigrant costs a city so much money and if Bryant and Wilber (0172) are correct that between 1950 and 1960 outmigration cost Mississippi $700 million a year, then the process of migration is costing the U. S. a great deal of money at both ends of the line. However, the evidence shows (see Chapter 3) that the income of migrants almost invariably improves with rural to urban migration. The fallacy or inconsistency lies in the fact that Crowley did not consider gains and costs over time nor did he consider the private sector of the economy, and Bryant and Wilber assumed that had the migrants not moved, they could have been economically employed. Given the total situation, we conclude that the individuals themselves are better off, the area of outmigration is frequently relieved of "surplus" population with the result that the remaining individuals are better off, and while the inmigrant may well cost the city government some sort of cash expenditure; if he does not stay in poverty, this will be more than repaid. The crux of the issue, of course, is economic opportunities for the migrants, and this is true for all individuals, not just migrants. Migration (labor mobility) is the major factor in adjusting the geographic variations in economic opportunity. Petersen and Sharp (0747, p. 261) report in the conclusion of their study in Cleveland, "We find little in these data to nourish the lingering notion that the arrival of Southern migrants *per se* signals the imminance of additional drains on government budgets...."

The effect of migration that has probably received most attention in urban areas is the increase in proportion of blacks in Northern metropolitan centers. In view of the attention it has received, it is interesting that only 22.6 percent of the black population in urban areas was rural at age 16 compared with 20.6 percent for the total urban population. The similarity of these two figures is consistent with the fact that of the total urban population that was rural at age 16, 11.3 percent were black, which is approximately their proportion in the total population (0132). Thus, we see that blacks are not unduly represented among migrants to urban areas.

The concentrations of blacks in urban areas which have attracted attention are the result of the disproportionate distribution of black rural to urban migrants. Most black rural to urban migrants whose destinations are outside the South go to large metropolitan areas, with relatively few going to small or medium size cities. This has led to the large concentrations found in Washington, D. C., New York, Chicago, Detroit, and so on. The cities with the highest proportions of blacks are in the South, but the cities with the largest numbers of blacks are outside the South (0780). There is some evidence that blacks receive higher incomes in larger cities, therefore, migrating to large cities would be economically rational (1081, 1086). While migration has led to the urbanization of the black population (0378, 0780, 0054, 0210), at the present time, most of the increase of black population in urban areas is the result of natural increase rather th~~e~~an migration (0378, 0403, 0585, 1086).

Concentration of blacks, especially migrants, in central cities is also a topic that has been the subject of much concern. Grodzens (0378) states that the population concentration of Negroes is segregated; once an urban area begins to swing from predominantly white to predominantly Negro, the trend is rarely reversed, and the pattern of this movement is from the core of the city outward. Tilly (0993) and Weaver (1079) voice similar concerns about the black concentration in cities and the white "flight" to the suburbs. Recently, however, there have been challenges to the notion that black migrants are concentrated inghettos and slums of central cities. Mahoney (0603) points out that new migrants typically

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do not form a large percentage of a city's Negro population and do not concentrate in a single sector of the city. Taeuber and Taeuber (0965) have found the net impact of black inmigration on Northern and Border state SMSA's to be mixed. They conclude that "Negro migrants are not concentrated or overrepresented to any appreciable degree in any type of area. Negro migrants are distributed throughout the city in much the same manner as the total population of which they are a part." In conducting his study of Negroes in Boston, Fried (0316) found in sampling that "the ghetto area turned out to be so 'integrated' that it was difficult to use the clusters as we had originally intended."

The problems which have been associated with large urban populations of blacks are not specifically problems of the inmigrants but problems of race relations in contemporary society. As Beale (0054) points out, "There is no question that the vast rural-urban movement after 1940 was the major source of the rapid growth of the black urban population. As such, it was a major contributor to those urban problems associated with black growth and congestion per se, but was probably not critical to the changed politico-cultural mood and stance of the urban black population."

Chapter 9. Policy Implications and Needed Research

It would be difficult to make any policy recommendations that have not already been made by some commission, research study, or individual (see "Policy Recommendations" in index to bibliography). Policy recommendations are all based on the assumption that certain goals should be achieved, and in the area of rural to urban migration and poverty, it is important to consider what the basic goals should be and the alternative paths for achieving them. Some people have assumed that the goal should be to stop rural to urban migration because it is causing urban problems. A broader view indicates that rural to urban migration is largely the consequence of a distribution of economic opportunities that does not coincide with the distribution of the labor force. As discussed in Chapter 1, the failure of the labor force distribution and the distribution of economic opportunities to coincide is a consequence of industrial development, developments creating a need for manpower in urban areas, developments in agriculture that reduce the need for manpower in rural areas, and an above-average fertility rate in rural areas. These developments have resulted in approximately 20 percent of the rural population being in poverty in 1967 as compared with only 10 percent of the urban population (0127). Forty percent of the people in poverty in 1967 lived in rural areas. Most rural to urban migration occurs as a response to these differentials.

auth.

The broad national goal is the reduction or elimination of poverty in all areas, but we will attempt to limit our consideration to those aspects relevant to rural-urban migration. It would be possible to develop a set of policies and goals aimed at eventually stopping rural-urban migration, or one could decide to assist and encourage rural-urban migration. Since it is unlikely that the poverty differentials will be resolved by either of these approaches alone, it is important to have programs and policies working in both directions. These do not have to be inconsistent with, nor in conflict with, each other. Given equal economic opportunities in urban and rural areas, some individuals would choose to live in rural areas, while others would choose urban areas. A person should not be forced to choose between poverty and urban living. (One could also reason that we should provide urban residents the opportunity to live in rural areas if they wished without being in poverty. This may be an eventual goal in our society as we are able to put more emphasis on quality of living. We must first, however, deal with the problem of rural poverty, since relative deprivation is the background of rural-urban migration.)

Let us look first at those policies which might reduce rural-urban migration. These are of two general types--those that would aim to improve economic opportunities and quality of living in rural areas and those that would reduce the growth rate of the rural population. In the latter category are programs of family planning and fertility control that will bring the rural birthrate more nearly in line with replacement rather than rapid growth (see K. Davis, 0240). There are programs operating in this area already, although continuing high fertility in most rural areas attests to the fact that there is still much work to be done. Such programs should be given broader support and innovations developed.

No proof that there is a causal effect kind of thing - may work the other way - the doubtful - possibility should be acknowledged

Since for most groups fertility declines with increasing levels of education, programs aimed at improving the educational level of the rural population could be expected to have important effects on fertility. While efforts are being made to improve rural education, much more massive efforts are needed. This will be discussed again later, but the important role of education in reducing fertility should not be overlooked. As Davis (0240) points out, fertility in rural areas is especially high among those who are in poverty and is higher among blacks than among whites. Excess fertility is more frequently a cause of poverty than a consequence. (This is also true for urban areas. See Hanson and Simmons,0416.)

In addition to policies designed to reduce fertility in rural areas, other policies must be designed to improve economic opportunities in rural areas. Agricultural employment is declining, but programs should be developed to improve the income level and employment stability of those still in agriculture. Boone and Kurland (0116) recommend that farm workers should be covered by the provisions of the National Labor Relations Act--workmen's compensation, unemployment insurance, minimum wages, and so forth. Extension of minimum wages would doubtless hasten mechanization in many areas, and, while such a policy (minimum wages) would probably solve some problems, it will create others (see Schon, 0851).

The development of alternative employment in rural areas is theoretically possible to achieve in different ways. Hodgell (0408) recommends industrial development in small cities and rural communities. The South has had a higher degree of industrial development in rural areas than have other parts of the country, but much of it has been low-wage industry. Unlike many others, Kain and Persky encourage the development of even low-wage industry in the rural South. "These low-wage industries can serve both as a training ground for rural labor and as a substantial source of income" (0508, p. 304). Industrial development usually implies certain levels of education, and this again emphasizes the importance of improving the educational levels of the rural population. Even if an industry had to be given a govennmental subsidy, this could possibly cost less than welfare payments of some form of family allowance or negative income tax for the individuals concerned. Research on the relative costs of these alternatives is needed.

There is also the question of whether industrialization for the employment of the rural poor should be developed in rural areas and small communities or in "growth centers." Hansen (0413,

1130) and Milne (0653) make a strong case for development in growth centers. In these places many of the rural poor could commute to work, but there would also have to be some migration. More information on commuting patterns will be available in the 1970 Census.

Development of commuting capabilities and off-farm part-time employment in an area have been related to the retention of potential migrants by a rural area or return home of Anglo outmigrants (0781, 0001, 0321).

The development of rural cooperatives among small farms is being tried (0060). This is probably one way to improve the income of small farmers. The potential population to be affected by such a program is important but not large.

Essential to virtually any program of rural development is the development of human resources (see Kain and Persky, 0508). One of the most important apsects of this is improvement of rural education in the South for both whites and blacks (0089, 0603, 0668, 0508). Even though it was pointed out in Chapter 4 that places are ~~a person is~~ not economically disadvantaged by virtue of having received his education in a rural area, it is important to remember that, regardless of where education was obtained, there is a positive association between years of school completed and income. Improved quantity and quality of rural education will be of benefit to those who remain in the rural area, will reduce fertility, and will be a financial advantage to those who migrate to urban areas. The fact that expenditures for education of outmigrants are lost to the sending area provides strong support for the idea of federal aid to education. The entire nation is affected by the poor quality of rural schools and Southern schools (see Kain and Persky, 0508).

Improvement in the quality of health services in rural areas is also important in the development of human resources (0768, 0824). The fact that the rural population has a higher proportion of work-limiting health conditions suggests that more adequate health services in rural areas might prevent or remedy many of these conditions. Programs aimed at this goal could make it possible for many of these individuals to rejoin the labor force. Thus, poverty would be reduced among those individuals for whom work-limiting health conditions are part of the cause of their poverty.

Other than reducing the number of people in rural areas, or providing increased employment opportunities, the only other type of program that might possibly reduce outmigration is the improvement of rural incomes by some system of transfer payments. The present welfare system has been notoriously inadequate, and the most likely system is some type of negative income tax. Such programs and the need for them are discussed at length, with recommendations, in the publication of the President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs (0765, 0766, 0767). The effect of such a program on rural-urban migration is uncertain, however (0559). In the income range up to $3000, it was found that the outmigration rate of blacks increased with increasing income (Chapter 3). The reverse pattern was found for whites, and several studies found that Anglos had strong ties to rural areas. If this pattern could be generalized, then an income maintenance plan which increased the incomes of rural residents could result in increased rural-urban migration of blacks and decreased rural-urban migration of whites. Racial attitudes are such that many people would not deem this a desirable outcome.

As indicated by the above recommendations, a great deal of effort is needed to improve the quality of life in rural areas and to develop economic opportunities for rural residents. However, it is quite unlikely that rural development can, in any reasonable length of time, proceed to the point that there would be no further rural-urban migration. Therefore, it is important not only to work on the development of human resources at the rural end of rural-urban migration, but also important to develop programs that are designed to make migration more efficient and less maladaptive for many individuals. Since no one approach is going to solve the problems associated with rural-urban migration, it is essential that programs be developed on all fronts.

It was pointed out in an earlier chapter than the decision to migrate is frequently separate from the selection of a destination; and it is probably easier to affect the selection of a destination than it is to affect the decision to migrate. An improved information system that could provide potential migrants detailed information about the job market in a variety of locations would increase the efficiency of migration. The beginnings of such an information system are described by Fairchild (0285). It is important that the Employment Service develop a large scale, rapid response, integrated system for providing information on specific openings to potential migrants. Such a system, properly organized and combined with other services to migrants, could make migration far more efficient in an economic sense. Unless it is expected that job opportunities can be made available for all people needing work in the places where they now live, such an information system is needed. It is necessary regardless of whether efforts are made to develop "growth centers", rural industry, or employment in metropolitan areas. Mueller (0668) points out that an improved flow of information would make for more efficient selection of destinations. Bishop (0089), Mahoney (0603), Sjaastad (0897), and others have made the same point and recommended an improved information system.

In addition to an improved information system, it would also be desirable to have a subsidized labor mobility program. The Department of Labor's Labor Mobility Programs have assisted many unemployed and underemployed individuals to obtain work, but the number that can be assisted in such programs is only a small fraction of the total number of migrants. However, this small fraction can be quite important in helping change patterns of migration into more economically efficient streams. As indicated earlier, the selection of destination is most frequently made on the basis of friends and relatives because they can act as a buffer in problems of adjustment. If the best economic opportunities exist in areas where the potential migrant has no friends or relatives, a labor mobility program which can subsidize some of the costs of moving and assist in getting settled may change the pattern of migration. Thus, it is important to have some type of labor mobility program associated with the information network. Brown and Hillery (0162) refer to this as "guided migration." Evaluation should be built into any labor mobility program with a follow-up coming a year or more after the move rather than just two months afterwards (see Fairchild, 0285).

Recommendations made here (as well as any other recommendations) should be studied carefully before being implemented, because programs frequently have unintended consequences. Varden Fuller points out:

> When the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the Land-Grant College system was initiated just over 100 years ago, it was with the anticipation that, if farmers could be helped to be more productive they would prosper and the foundations of Jeffersonian rural life would be strengthened. It was a populist and rural fundamentalist idea. But contrary to expectation, the Land-Grant College Act was to become probably the most influential prometropolitan step ever undertaken by the

> national government. The expected new farm technology did materialize.... However, for farmers it contributed more to their obsolescence than to their prosperity.
> --Varden Fuller (1128, p.2).

Several articles have been written evaluating programs currently underway (see "Government Policies Affecting Migration" in index to bibliography). The most relevant are those by Schon (0851), Bonnen (0115), McKee and Day (0635), and Herr (0448). Those government programs which probably have had greatest effect on rural-urban migration have been those of the Department of Agriculture operated under the policies of the Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Service, such as acreage allotments, marketing quotas, soil bank, and price-support programs. In many cases the effect of these programs has been to reduce the available agricultural employment and thus to force many people into nonfarm employment either with or without migration. Schon (0851) points out that the extension of the Federal Minimum Wage Law to cover agricultural workers not formerly covered has resulted in massive displacement of farmworkers. "It has been estimated that 50,000 people will be displaced in Mississippi alone during the first year." Schon discusses the effects on migration of 26 different government programs, the conflicts among the programs, and recommendations for improvement. His most fundamental recommendation is for improved coordination among the programs. It is difficult to evaluate the extent to which various government programs have affected migration or affected the conditions leading to migration. As mentioned above, the major effects have been unintended displacements of farm labor. None of the programs designed to alleviate the conditions underlying migration, the programs designed to assist in the adjustment of migrants, or the programs designed to encourage migration have dealt with a sufficiently large number of people with sufficient impact to have had measurable effects on total rural to urban migration.

Although there have been changes in some of the programs, Schon's detailed analysis (0851) is recommended to the reader.

Despite the amount of research represented by all the citations in the annotated bibliography, there are still certain substantive areas that need further research in order to establish a sound basis for the development of policy relating to rural-urban migration. These are listed below without discussion since most of them have been referred to earlier in this report.

1. The decision making process of both migration and selection of destination
2. Factors which make for strong identification with an area and unwillingness to migrate despite economic advantages
3. Differences between migrants and nonmigrants in motivation, or need-achievement, prior to migration
4. Better understanding of the relationship between rates of outmigration and income in the rural area prior to migration
5. Physical and mental health of migrants compared to urban natives
6. Effects of regional location on income for rural-urban migrants
7. Information on relationship between migrant-nonmigrant income differentials and number of family wage earners

8. Differences between rural-farm and rural-nonfarm migrants in comparison to urban natives

9. Knowledge of characteristics and motivations of returnees to rural areas compared with outmigrants and rural nonmigrants

10. What changes in rural areas would induce return migration

11. Effects of outmigration on rural areas

12. Social problems of migrants to urban areas, such as levels of crime, delinquency, absenteeism

13. Study of urban-born children of rural-urban migrants

14. Effects of migration on family composition

15. Relative costs of creating a job in a metropolitan area, a growth center, and a rural area

This report has indicated that a concern with rural to urban migration probably cannot be justified on the basis of urban problems. As Wertheimer (1086) says, "Programs to stem migration to the cities are not likely to have much impact on city problems." The concern is justified on the basis of rural poverty.

Sterling Tucker said in addressing the National Manpower Conference in 1968 (1007, p. 90), "It is clearly the word Negro in the term 'Negro migration' which presents the greatest threat and challenge to cities today--not migration itself." Much of the concern over rural-urban migration is a result of the fact that it has been seen as the force changing central cities to predominantly black areas, despite the fact that only 2.3 percent of the urban population 17 and over is made up of black rural-urban migrants (0132). It is the reaction to blacks that has caused most of the concern. We have seen in this report that even the rural Southern blacks moving into urban areas do as well financially (and as poorly) as the native urban blacks. The basic problem is that of improving the status of blacks, and recommendations on that problem are beyond the scope of this report.

APPENDIX A

SUMMARIES OF FINDINGS OF STUDIES FUNDED BY THE OFFICE OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY

A.1 Abt Associates, Inc. The Causes of Rural-to-Urban Migration among the Poor. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 99-4841. Cambridge, Mass.: Abt Associates, Inc., 1970.

The study question under investigation was, "Why do poor people move from rural to urban areas?" Although all causes of migration are examined, special focus is on those causes "susceptible to policy influence." No rigid definition of poverty was used, and the breakpoint of "under 25,000" population was used to define a rural area. Interviewing was conducted in two destination cities and eight origin counties for each of black, white, and Mexican-American migration streams. County names were obtained from urban respondents. Three hundred each of urban and rural interviews were obtained for each ethnic stream. Types of information obtained included: (a) information describing the individual and facts about his life; (b) reasons influencing the decision to move or stay; and (c) perceptions and attitudes, particularly those concerning problems in rural areas and contrasts between rural and urban areas. Findings include the following: (1) About twice as many rural as urban respondents had incomes of less than $3,000 per year. While the majority of all three streams had a family income of less than $3,000, while they were in the rural area, only 17-24% had incomes that were low in the urban area at the time of interview. (2) Negroes seem to make the largest relative gains in income, simply because they start out in the worst position to begin with. (3) "...migrants to the smaller regional cities seem to be propelled by weaker versions of the same forces that motivate the longer-distance movers." "Fundamentally it appears that the migrants to the regional centers are individuals who have not been thoroughly dismayed by rural conditions or as enchanted by urban conditions as the migrants who leave the region. Nevertheless, these individuals have been forced out of the rural area by employment dislocation and life cycle changes." "Economic factors were considerably more important for the big city migrants... They were more likely to have been unemployed in the rural area, and they tended to be much younger than those who chose the regional alternative." (4) Those who move tend to be the younger and therefore better educated of the rural populations. (5) Data would indicate that a higher proportion of blacks than of other groups will ultimately stay out of the area from which they migrated and that a higher proportion of whites than any group ultimately will return to the original area. (6) Overall, there may be slightly more males than females migrating. (7) Among returnees, about half came back to the rural area because they were homesick. Some returned when they became ill, and some women expressed the idea that the countryside and country schools were a healthier place to raise children. Some individuals did move back because they found jobs in the rural area or because they deplored housing conditions in the city. When discussing the possibility of return migration or future migration, Abt says, "Those people who returned to the rural area because they preferred the housing and schools there, or because they wanted to see their families again, most frequently say they might go back to the city. People who complained of the rush and loneliness of the city when they came home were significantly less desirous of moving again. Willingness to move back are strongly related the continued ownership (by self or family) of property in the rural area." (8) There is no evidence that migrants move because of the expectation of higher welfare payments in the city. (9) At the time of move, migrants were more likely to be unemployed than those who did not move. (10) Abt seems to accept the idea that the rural-to-urban flow has decreased in the black streams from the South. (11) While migrants are better educated than nonmigrants, this appears to be a function of the youth of the migrants. With age controlled, nonmigrants were better educated than migrants. (12) The majority of interviewed returnees gave responses that would point to choice rather than necessity concerning the return to the rural area. While 17.1% of black returnees, 32.4% of white returnees, and 25.7% of Mexican-American returnees came back for economic reasons, there is no way to determine which were "failures" and which were returning in response to job offers or news of job opportunities. (13) To the extent that the younger and most productive people are leaving, then the rural area suffers the loss of those who would be most apt to help improve economic, social and political conditions in rural areas. (14) Present agricultural systems in the rural areas lead to mechanization, and those who do not accomplish occupational mobility out of agriculture will migrate. (15) "In all streams, the tendency was for those people who had received some benefits either from training or from poverty programs to remain in the rural area rather than to migrate." About 8-9% of respondents had received assistance from poverty programs, and CAP was the most often mentioned source. (16) Abt feels that income maintenance programs will not cause people to migrate, but the then-proposed Family Assistance Plan was not discussed.

A.2 Fried, Marc, et al. A Study of the Demographic and Social Determinants of Functional Achievement in a Negro Population. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 89-4279. Chestnut Hill, Mass.: Boston College, Institute of Human Sciences, 1971.

This study was designed to assess "the impact of early social environments on occupational and urban functioning." The hypothesis is presented that "while education may be the mediate influence of greatest importance for occupational achievement, in a longer view it is itself the product of prior forces of parental social class status of rural-urban environments, of American regional differences in opportunity, and of a more global experience of modern resources and facilities. "The study describes a comparison of black migrants to Boston ages 25-45 with black urban nonmigrants; occasional comparison with earlier white migrants and white urban nonmigrants are given for contrast. For the investigation of the dominant issues three sets cf variables were used: (1) Background factors, including parental family status and situation, pre-modern versus modern background, educational preparation, and early discrimination; (2) transitional experiences, including migration and residential transition, cognitive orientations, family relationships, community cohesiveness and interaction, and occupational experience; and (3) outcome situations including occupational achievement, urban absorption and psychosocial adaptation. Findings include the following: (1) "Both male and female migrants earn less than urban nonmigrants, and migrants from less urbanized origins earn less than migrants from more urban backgrounds." There are no income figures for migrants prior to migration. (2) Migrants were found to be less well educated than urban natives. (3) Some data indicate lower levels of satisfaction with Boston among migrants than among urban natives. (4) "...migrants show only a very small disproportion among those on public assistance....And among the migrants, it was not the newcomers who were most frequently receiving public assistance, but those who had been in Boston for six years or more. Thus, whichever side of [the] argument we examine, the reasons for migrating, the rapidity with which new migrants obtain and hold jobs even under restrictive conditions, or the migrant and nonmigrant ratios on welfare and the relatively low migrant rates on welfare during the period shortly after arrival, this invidious conception of migration among blacks [moving to get welfare] finds no support." (5) "Male migrants who arrived in Boston before they were 18 years of age have the highest rates of unemployment (7.4%), but even those who arrived in later adolescence or adulthood have considerably higher rates (5.5%) than do those born in Boston (3.0%). The pattern among females is similar, except that the migrants who arrived after age 18 have the lowest unemployment rate. Not only do migrants have particularly high unemployment rates, but those who arrived quite recently (less than 2 years ago) are far more often currently unemployed." Apparently, migrants in the city three to five years have the lowest unemployment rates of all. (6) "Among black migrants [return to places of origin] is infrequent because, no matter how difficult the transition and how unrewarding it may be in absolute terms, the vast majority have come from the South, where the disadvantages for blacks were so enormous that even meager gains achieved in Northern cities represent conditions superior to their prior experiences or what they could look forward to on return." (7) "Whether the black migrants view the move to Boston as easy or hard, a few factors stand out as the major sources of problems. Among recent migrants, the single most important consideration is the loss of close ties to other people who were left behind, and, more generally, of the home environment." "But... the predominant sources of hardship are to be found in characteristics of the new environment: problems in locating adequate jobs and housing, the strangeness of the large city, and for women, social isolation." Some apparent retrospective glossing-over was found among the sample responses concerning adjustment problems. (8) The majority (52%) received no help at all on arrival in the city. (9) "...those born in Boston and migrants who came to Boston before they reached six years of age, had a clear educational advantage over persons migrating after the sixth year." "The educational attainments of those persons who migrated to Boston from other Northern urban areas are actually higher than those of blacks born in Boston" with age controlled. (10) "Those migrants who have gained less and who can anticipate, therefore, a relatively minor economic loss which might be compensated by social gains if they returned to their places of origin, often return....Yet...many uncertainties exist which appear often to be resolved by the existence of stabilizing opportunities or to be exacerbated by the lack of external resources." (11) Fried subscribes to the idea that changes in agricultural technology and crops farmed in the South have contributed to the flow of blacks from the South.

A.3 Masters, Stanley H. A Study of Socioeconomic Mobility among Urban Negroes. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 99-4790. New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers, The State University, 1970. The research question posed was, "Are Negro migrants better off than nonmigrants in urban areas?" Using 1960 Census data, the author performed regression analyses for Negro and white movers separated into groups of recent and lifetime migrants. Recent migrants are whites and blacks who moved to an SMSA between 1955 and 1960, and these persons are compared to those living in SMSA's in both 1955 and 1960. Negro lifetime migrants are defined as those born in the South who were living in an SMSA outside the South in 1960 and are compared to Negroes living in SMSA's outside the South in 1960 who were not born in the South. Independent variables are migration status, age, education, region, size of SMSA, central city or suburban residence, sex, marital status, and presence of children. Dependent variables include family income, a poverty index, individual income, earned individual income, weeks worked per year, earnings per week, hours worked per week, earnings per hour, labor force participation, unemployment status, and occupation. Findings include the following: (1) The major finding is that lifetime Negro migrants, while at an educational disadvantage, do better than Negro nonmigrants. (2) Results for recent Negro migrants imply that they go through an adjustment period during which they do not do as well as nonmigrants. (3) Results for white lifetime migrants are comparable to those for blacks. (4) Recent white migrants generally are not doing as well as nonmigrants, although the migrant-nonmigrant difference is not as great as for blacks. In accounting for the greater attainment of black lifetime migrants in comparison to nonmigrant blacks, Masters includes the following ideas: (a) Among blacks, it is postulated that migration may be selective of the most ambitious; (b) Because black migrants move to urban Northern areas where economic opportunities are greatest, they gain an advantage over nonmovers just by moving there, implying a rational migration decision; and (c) The poor position of recent versus lifetime black migrants is the result of adjustment problems of recent migrants. (5) Recent Negro migrants account for only five percent of all Negroes living in SMSA's; therefore, "very little of the economic problems of the Negro ghettos can be attributed to disadvantaged migrants coming up from the rural South." (6) For Negroes, rural-urban migration leads to increases in money income and reductions in poverty.

A.4 Price, Daniel O., et al. A Study of the Economic Consequences of Rural to Urban Migration. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 89-4594. Austin, Tex.: TRACOR Inc., 1969.
The major purpose of the study was "to obtain information on the sorts of people who are better off by virtue of moving from a rural to an urban area, and to consider the possible nature of intervention in the rural-urban migration process, if some government agency were to intervene in this process." "The population studied was made up of Mexican-American migrants from South Texas to San Antonio and Chicago, Negro migrants from Yazoo County, Mississippi, to Chicago, and Anglo migrants from Butler County, Kentucky, to Louisville and Indianapolis." Interviews were obtained from nonmigrants in the specified rural areas, as well as from migrants to the designated urban places. Only male Anglos and Mexican-Americans were interviewed, but both male and female Negroes were included in the study. In general, migration was found to decrease the proportion in poverty, but Negro females and Mexican-American migrants in Chicago were not as well off over rural dwellers as other groups, and the San Antonio Mexican-American migrants had a higher proportion in poverty than did the rural Mexican-American sample. The greatest improvement was found among Negro male migrants. Mexican-American males and Negro males and females who moved after 1963 had higher incomes in the rural area than nonmigrants in 1963; the reverse was found to be the case for the Anglos. Migrants' 1967 family incomes were higher than were those of nonmigrants in 1967, and, for each ethnic-sex group, migrants with the exception of San Antonio Mexican-Americans had lower proportions in poverty than nonmigrants. For all groups except Anglos, migrants had higher proportions with two or more wage earners in the family than nonmigrants. In comparing individual income differences between migrants and nonmigrants in 1967, Negro males were found to have made the greatest gains and Negro females and San Antonio Mexican-Americans, the least, with Chicago Mexican-Americans and Anglos having about the same dollar increase over rural counterparts. In comparing family incomes in 1967, Anglos were found to have moved to the position of lowest gains over nonmigrants because fewer family members work in the city than was found for other ethnic groups and because more family members work in the rural area compared to other nonmigrant ethnic groups.

Although the Chicago Mexican-Americans had higher incomes than the San Antonio group, it was found that, in comparison to the resident urban populations in both cities, the San Antonio Mexican-Americans were relatively better off than the Chicago Mexican-American migrants. Migrants were found, in general, to be both better educated and younger than nonmigrants. Only one Mexican-American migrant found conditions in the city worse than he expected, while all the rest found conditions the same or better than anticipated. Almost two-thirds of the Anglos found conditions to be about what they expected, while 10.3% of Negro males and 30.7% of Negro females found conditions in Chicago worse. Most of the negative responses centered on housing and job opportunities. When return migration was considered, 74% of Anglos stated they would return if there were economic and occupational opportunities. About 50% of the Negroes said they would return, given the proper economic and occupational conditions, specifically, the opportunity to own their own homes and reduced discrimination. Over sixty percent of Chicago Mexican-Americans would return under favorable economic conditions, but only 42% of San Antonio Mexican-Americans agreed. Questioning concerning ease of obtaining welfare in the city pointed to the conclusion that migrants do not move to get on welfare. Migrants were found to have a lower proportion unemployed than nonmigrants. Negroes, especially females, had made fewer new, close friends in the city than other groups; Negroes in general were found to be the most alienated and disappointed with the city. "Among all three groups the decision to leave the rural area was nearly always an economic or occupational decision. Once the decision was made to migrate, very few migrants considered alternate destinations, but usually selected the city of destination on the basis of friends or relatives living there. When asked about their sources of advance information about the city, such information nearly always was provided by friends and relatives." The largest proportion of migrants moved directly to the urban area. "There is little evidence of 'step migration' among any of the groups studied." "upon arriving in the urban areas, nearly all of the migrants spent their first night with friends and relatives." "Regardless of job leads, three-fourths of the Mexican-Americans and Anglos had jobs within one week after their arrivals in the urban area, but only 42% of the Negro males had jobs by the end of the first week. By the end of the month, 85% or more of all male respondents had jobs." "All groups showed improvement in the quantity and quality of food consumed by virtue of living in urban areas." Levels of living were improved for all groups through migration.

A.5 Reagan, Barbara, et al. Mexican American Industrial Migrants. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 99-4774, SMU Project 8635. Dallas, Tex.: Southern Methodist University, Institute of Urban Studies, 1971.

This report was submitted as a summary of work completed in the first two years of a projected three-year study of Mexican-American industrial migrants relocated from the Rio Grande Valley of Texas to Dallas. Object of the study was to ascertain "the adjustment process and measures of economic progress" of disadvantaged migrants "who accepted retraining for industrial jobs." Comparison groups were co-workers in the same work units of the migrants at Ling-Tempco-Vaught, Inc., in Dallas and a cohort of residents in the Rio Grande Valley. Original plans of the study called for "in-depth analysis of the behaviors and attitudes of the retrained workers in the plant and in his community relations, the behavior and attitudes of his wife and her experiences in the community, their expectations and problems, changes in family income and major expenditures, and debt patterns." A multidisciplinary approach was to be used in the analysis of data. The two-year report presents an ethnographic analysis of Rio Grande City, Texas, as an example of a place from which the migrants came and a section dealing with an historical perspective on Mexican-American settlement in Dallas, Texas. A case study is presented of each of the following types of adjustment: (a) a family who returned to the Valley; (b) a worker who stayed in Dallas at LTV; and (c) a worker who stayed in Dallas but left LTV. Other chapters include a discussion of the demographic characteristics of the three sample groups and plant relationships of the relocated workers. Pre-migration data for 1967-1968 were obtained, and post-migration data are for 1969. Of the 323 Valley trainees subsequently relocated to Dallas, 58.6% were classified as having been in poverty in 1967-1968, and another 18.1% were classified as "near poverty." In 1969, the median income of the trainees still employed was $8,368, including overtime pay. Only 6.7% of this group had annual gross incomes below $6,000. The retrained migrants were one median year younger and one median year better educated than the Valley cohort group, although educational comparisons are rather dubious since the training program was educationally selective to begin with. Also, age controls were instituted to make the two groups as alike as possible. Incomes of trainees were found to be much higher than for the Valley cohort in 1969, whereas incomes for trainees and the cohort were about the same when both were in the Valley in 1967-1968. As far as remigration is concerned, the trainees who terminated [the majority went back to the Valley] as compared to the trainees still employed at time of last interview were slightly younger, had a greater proportion of four or more children and were generally less well educated. Since they had completed the training program, however, they definitely brought skills back to the rural area, but whether opportunities existed for them to use any of that training is not known. Even though these trainees represent the younger and better educated elements of the Valley population, their loss is not as great to the Valley as it would be for another ethnic group in another area of outmigration. Given the existing power structure, with given economic and political realities, the youth probably ease the burden of the surplus labor force on the area by leaving.

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VOLUME II

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY
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ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

INTRODUCTION

All titles in this bibliography were not independently annotated. In some cases, abstracts appearing at the heads of journal articles were judged to be the most concise and complete representations of contents that could be made; these few abstracts are included verbatim. The annotations of starred citations were taken substantially from those contained in J. J. Mangalam's Human Migration: A Guide to Migration Literature in English, 1955-1962 (Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky Press, 1968). A few annotations, mostly of pamphlets, bulletins, and dissertations from various sources, were included after it was determined that it would be unfeasible to attempt to obtain and review the publications themselves. Annotations were written from the viewpoints of the various authors and do not contain critical material.

0001. Abt Associates, Inc. The Causes of Rural-to-Urban Migration among the Poor. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 99-4841. Cambridge, Mass.: Abt Associates, Inc., 1970.

0002. Abt Associates, Inc. The Industrialization of Southern Rural Areas. Report submitted to the U. S. Department of Commerce, Economic Development Administration, Office of Economic Research, Contract 7-35482. Cambridge, Mass.: Abt Associates, Inc., 1968.

0003. Adkins, William G., and Skrabanek, Robert L. The Texas Farm Population, 1954. Progress Report 1738. College Station, Tex.: Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1954.
This report presents changes and trends in the farm population of Texas from 1930 to 1954. It includes data on changes in urban and rural populations, number of farms, farm labor force, and tenancy.

0004. Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations. Urban and Rural America: Policies for Future Growth. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.
Of particular interest is a section on the dynamics of mobility and migration, which relies rather heavily on Census data and on work completed at the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan in 1967 for the period, 1957-1963. Subsections include discussions of patterns of movement, migration and urban concentration, causes of mobility, the process of moving, and mobility and the poor.

0005. Alabama, University of. Business Research Council. Flight from the Soil. University, Ala.: University of Alabama, Business Research Council, 1958.

0006. Aldous, Joan, and Hill, Reuben. "Breaking the Poverty Cycle: Strategies of Support for Family Development." Paper. N.p., n.d.
This paper points up those stages of the family life cycle at which an income maintenance program would be most effective in relieving the pressures that narrow the family's career alternatives and in breaking with the cycle of transmission of poverty.

0007. Allen, John H., Buck, Roy C., and Wink, Anna T. Pulling Up Stakes and Breaking Apron Strings. Progress Report 136. University Park, Penn.: Pennsylvania Agricultural Experiment Station, 1955.
This report presents data on the spatial and occupational mobility of rural youth and pinpoints characteristics of migrants, their destinations and success.

0008. Allen-Price, E. D. "Some Sociological and Statistical Effects of Depopulation of a Rural Area." *Public Health*, 71 (April, 1957), 25-35.

0009. Almon, C., Jr. "Origins and Relation to Agriculture of Industrial Workers in Kingsport, Tennessee." *Journal of Farm Economics*, 38 (August, 1956), 828-836.

0010. Anderson, Albert F. "Theoretical Considerations in the
* Analysis of Migration." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Iowa State University of Science and Technology, 1962.
Using Census data, the author tests a series of hypotheses within a framework of theoretical considerations. Answers to two questions were sought: (1) Can the variations in rates of net migration for the 1950-1960 decade among the counties of Iowa be explained and predicted from the theoretical framework?; and (2) Do other types of adaptation to deprivation function as alternatives to migration? Ten of the hypotheses were supported.

0011. Anderson, Anton J. *Changes in Farm Population and Rural Life in Four North Dakota Counties.* Bulletin 375. Fargo, N. D.: North Dakota Agricultural Experiment Station, 1952.
This bulletin includes analysis of the extent and nature of farm population decline in four counties which had experienced different degrees of population loss between 1930 and 1945, and discusses the causes of farm population decline, especially its effects on levels of living and community life.

0012. Anderson, C. S. *Young Men Ten Years After Leaving Pennsylvania Rural High Schools: An Analysis of High School Records and Vocational Choices and the Adult Experiences of 586 Young Men.* Bulletin 468. University Park, Penn.: Pennsylvania Agricultural Experiment Station, 1944.
A major finding of this study was that ten years after graduation, 37% of the study group had migrated from the home community, but only 18% had stuck to their initial occupational choices.

0013. Anderson, Nels. *Men on the Move.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940.

0014. Anderson, Theodore R. "Intermetropolitan Migration: Com-
* parison of the Hypotheses of Zipf and Stouffer." *American Sociological Review*, 20(3) (January, 1955), 287-291.
The study group included migrants from 54 metropolitan subregions within the Northeast and North Central regions of the U. S. to each of the nearest 30 metropolitan subregions, 1935-40. Census data on distance, intervening

opportunities, and related factors were used in determining the relative size of migrant streams. Conclusions are: (1) Number of intervening opportunities does not appear to be a more accurate measure of distance than highway mileage; (2) Population size should be corrected for the extent of unemployment, which makes the numerator in Zipf's formula more in line with the concept of opportunities; (3) State boundaries operate as inhibiting factors, tending to block movement, and, hence, to reduce the accuracy of Zipf's formula; and (4) Findings suggest an alternative general hypothetical model: the number of extra multiplying variables should be held to a minimum, and the powers to which the basic variables are raised should be treated as variables from one application to another, rather than as overall constants.

0015. Anderson, Theodore R. "Intermetropolitan Migration: Correlation Analysis." American Journal of Sociology, 61(5) (1956), 459-462.
*
Census data for 1940 on migrants between the 54 major metropolises in the Northeastern and North Central regions of the U. S. are used. The variance in the four migration rates (inmigration, outmigration, net migration and total migratory activity) is found to be reduced substantially by a linear multiple regression equation involving the following characteristics of the metropolises: percentage of the labor force that is unemployed, mean rent of all dwelling units, log of the population size, and log of the sum of population divided by distance, summed over the ten metropolises nearest the one being considered. The study concludes that the "net migration can be explained purely in terms of the push-pull theory. The hypothesized variables are sufficient to explain most of the variation in migration rates. Other Census data do not, in general, improve the explanation materially."

0016. Anderson, Theodore R. "Potential Models and the Spatial Distribution of Population." Regional Science Association Papers and Proceedings, 2 (1956), 175-182.

0017. Andrews, Henry L. "A Descriptive and Analytical Study of Population Redistribution in Alabama, 1930 to 1950." Dissertation Abstracts, 13 (1953), 1289-1290.
This study shows that commercial and industrial areas were growing through net inmigration, and agricultural areas were declining as a result of net outmigration. Net outmigration was associated with high fertility, diversification of farming, mechanization, and low socioeconomic levels.

0018. Andrews, Wade H. "Farm People and the Changing Population

of Ohio." Ohio Farm Bureau News, 34(6) (January,1955), 35-37.
Discusses the movement of nonfarm people into rural areas and the declining rural-farm population, along with the latter's effect on rural community organization.

0019. Andrews, Wade H., and Westerkamm, Emily. Rural-Urban Population Change and Migration in Ohio, 1940-50. Bulletin 737. Wooster, Ohio: Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station, 1953.
The authors examine natural increase and migration as sources of population change, by residence groups and economic areas, and discuss agricultural and industrial factors in migration.

0020. Antonovsky, Aaron, and Lerner, Melvin J. "Occupational Aspirations of Lower Class Negro and White Youth." Social Problems, 7(2) (Fall, 1959), 132-138.

0021. Appleyard, R. T. "Determinants of Return Movement." The Economic Record, 38 (December, 1962), 352-368.

0022. Armstrong, John M., Jr. "A Mexican Community: A Study of the Cultural Determinants of Migration." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Yale University, 1949.

0023. Askin, A. Bradley. "An Economic Analysis of Black Migration." Unpublished thesis, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1970.
This thesis examines patterns of black migration, the factors responsible for them, and the consequences they have. Black migration is considered by itself and relative to migration in general within an econometric approach. Black mobility patterns are found to be significantly different from migration patterns in general, and to differ significantly in the North and South. Black migration is found to have significant effects on urbanization for all definitions of migration analyzed, to have significant effects on income for a portion of the definitions, and to have larger urbanization and income effects than migration in general for all the definitions. The larger impacts are traced back to the disproportionate number of blacks living in the South and the tremendous outflows of them from that region. The implied existence of external diseconomies associated with black migration's urbanizing impacts are pointed out.

0024. Averett, Jo Anna. "North Carolina Report on Mobility." Paper. N.p., 1966. (Mimeographed.)

0025. Bachmura, Frank T. "Man-Land Equalization through Migration." American Economic Review, 49 (1959), 1004-1017.
Effectiveness of farm-labor migration in diminishing regional differentials in agricultural incomes is tested

by a comparative study of two areas: Iowa and a 24-county case study area around Memphis, Tennessee.

0026. Bachmura, Frank T. "Migration and Factor Adjustment in Lower Mississippi Valley Agriculture." Journal of Farm Economics, 38(4) (November, 1956), 1024-1042. The author concludes that geographical variations in county incomes related to rates of migration and population change in an income equilibrating way in the total population, while in the rural-farm population, rates of population change tend not to be income equilibrating with respect to county differences.

0027. Bacon, A. Lloyd. "Migration, Poverty and the Rural South." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociology Section of the Association of Southern Agricultural Workers, Jacksonville, Florida, February 1-3, 1971. This paper is based on the USDA-UGA study, using data from the 1967 SEO tapes. Eight hypotheses were tested. (1) The hypothesis that when race is controlled, there will be no significant difference in poverty incidences between rural nonmigrants and rural-rural migrants within the South was accepted. (2) The hypothesis that controlling for race, migrants out of the rural South will have lower incidences than those left behind was supported. (3) The hypothesis that controlling for color, migrants from the rural South to the rural non-South will have a lower poverty incidence than rural-rural migrants within the South was supported for whites. The base for Negroes was too small. (4) The hypothesis that movement within the South from a rural to urban place will be characterized by a lower proportion in poverty than a move to another rural place outside the South was rejected for whites. (5) The hypothesis that controlling for race, rural-urban migrants out of the South will have lower rates of poverty than rural-urban migrants within the South is supported for Negroes but rejected for whites. (6) The hypothesis that controlling for race, migrants into the rural South will be less likely to be living in poverty than the native rural Southerners they join was accepted. (7) The hypothesis that interregional rural-rural migrants into the South will have a lower incidence of poverty than is found among rural-rural migrants within the South was rejected for whites and could not be tested for Negroes because of the lack of data. (8) "It was thought...that the poverty incidence would decline from category to category from interregional rural-rural, intraregional urban-rural, to interregional urban-rural. The proportion in poverty did decline as hypothesized, but not significantly. Finally, those migration streams in opposite directions on both regional and rural-urban axes were quite similar in poverty composition whether the movement was into or out of the rural South." Conclusion is that "...a movement across one boundary, whether regional or rural-urban, is similarly rigorous in the selectivity involved."

0028. Bacon, A. Lloyd. "Migration and Structural Conflict." Unpublished memorandum prepared for the Interdisciplinary Subcommittee, Southern Land Economics Research Committee, 1963.

0029. Bacon, A. Lloyd. "Poverty among Interregional Rural to Urban Migrants." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, Washington, D. C., August 26-30, 1970. (Typewritten.)
This paper is based on USDA-UGA study, with data from the 1967 SEO tapes. Analyses of geographic movements are restricted to the four major Census regions. Primary focus is on rural-urban migrants, with particular emphasis on differences in poverty statuses of migrants from the rural South to the urban North and people making the opposite residential transition. Findings include the following: (1) Interregional migrants from rural South-urban North had intermediate levels of poverty between those of sending and receiving populations. (2) Poor rural-urban South-North migrants of both races constitute a minority of poor persons in Northern ghettos/slums of cities. Central city conditions must not be "blamed" on migrants from the rural South. Similarly, incidence of poverty in the South is not in any way related to inmigration of rural-urban North-South poor whites and Negroes. (3) Rural-urban North-South migrants were considerably better off than both sending and receiving populations. The author offers a definition of migration and attempts to use it in an analytical scheme that takes into account sociocultural factors of persons and social systems as they relate to migration selectivity.

0030. Bacon, A. Lloyd, Bowles, Gladys K., and Ritchey, P. Neal. Rural-Urban Migrants, 1967: A Comparison of the Demographic, Social and Economic Characteristics of Rural-Urban Migrants with Other Population Groups. Washington, D. C. and Athens, Ga.: Government Printing Office and the University of Georgia, Forthcoming.

0031. Bagley, Christopher. "Migration, Race, and Mental Health: A Review of Some Recent Research." Race, 9(3) (1968), 343-356.

0032. Bailey, Kenneth, and Rockwell, Richard. "Level-of-Living and Internal Migration in Mexico." Paper prepared at TRACOR, Inc., Austin, Texas, n.d.

0033. Baird, Andrew W., and Bailey, Wilfrid C. Farmers Moving
* Out of Agriculture. Bulletin 568. State College, Miss.: Mississippi State College, Department of Sociology and Rural Life, 1958.
Data presented are for 161 farm operators living in six communities in Alcorn County, Mississippi. Findings include characteristics of the people moving between farm and nonfarm occupations, whether the shift is a sudden one or whether several steps or stages are involved in the process, and what happens to the land formerly operated by people who shift from farm to nonfarm occupations.

0034. Bakke, E. Wight, et al. Labor Mobility and Economic Opportunity. New York: MIT Technology Press and John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1954.

0035. Balakrishnan, T. R. "Migration and Opportunity: A Study of Standard Metropolitan Areas in the United States." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1963.

0036. Banas, Casey. "Uptown: Mecca for Migrants." Southern Education Report, (March, 1969), 10-13.
Uptown is a decaying Northside Chicago neighborhood where thousands of Appalachian whites have settled in the past 20 years and in whose dozen schools about 3,200 Appalachian white children are enrolled. Truancy is a major problem: the absentee rate of a school with large numbers of Appalachian whites is as high as 14%, compared to the city's average of 8%. Appalachian parents do not have confidence in the schools, many of which do not qualify for federal funds under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). Descriptions are given of ways in which officials try to raise parent commitment to the value of education and of programs designed specifically for Appalachian whites to be instituted when funds are available.

0037. Bang, James S., et al. Population Change and Migration: 1950-1960. Population Series I. Madison, Wisc.: University of Wisconsin, College of Agriculture, 1961.

0038. Banks, Vera J. Migration of Farm People: An Annotated Bibliography, 1946-60. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963.

0039. Barbichon, Guy. Adaptation and Training of Rural Workers for Industrial Work, Part II. Paris: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1962.

0040. Batchelder, Allan B. "Occupational and Geographic Mobility: Two Ohio Area Case Studies." Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 18 (July, 1965), 570-583.

0041. Bauder, Ward W. "Analysis of Trends in Population, Population Characteristics and Community Life in Southern Iowa." Seminar on Adjustment and Its Problems in Southern Iowa. CAEA Report No. 4. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University of Science and Technology, College of Agriculture, 1959.
Data used are 1950 Census figures for 19 counties in Southern Iowa. The author states that outmigration along with changes in birth and death rates have changed the age distribution of the population drastically, especially in the 25-30 age group. Continued heavy outmigration has reduced the proportion of persons under ten years of age relative to the state or nation and also the proportion of women of childbearing age sufficiently to cause reduction in crude birth rates.

0042. Bauder, Ward W., and Burchinal, Lee G. "Adjustment of Rural-Reared Young Adults in Urban Areas." Paper presented at the National Conference on Problems of Rural Youth in a Changing Environment, September, 1963. Washington, D. C.: National Committee for Children and Youth, 1963. (Mimeographed.)
This paper presents a review of studies and findings concerned with the social, personality, and employment adjustment of rural-reared young adults in urban areas.

0043. Bauder, Ward W., and Burchinal, Lee G. "Do Rural People Succeed in the City?" Iowa Farm Science, 19 (September, 1964), 11-13.
In Des Moines, farm-reared men who had the same education as urbanites got the same jobs as urbanites, but in Cedar Rapids, farm migrants of the same age and educational level as urban migrants did not get equal status jobs. Authors conclude that this may be a result of type of person who migrates to each city and the type of employment opportunities available in each city.

0044. Bauder, Ward W., and Burchinal, Lee G. "Economic Success of Farm Migrants." Iowa Farm Science, 19 (October, 1964), 9-10.
Due to lower levels of education and aspiration, farm migrants had the lowest status level jobs, income, and held the lowest average levels of real estate. Length of time spent in the city was found to make little difference in job status and family income.

0045. Bauder, Ward W., and Burchinal, Lee G. Farm Migrants to the City: A Comparison of the Status, Achievement, Community and Family Relations of Farm Migrants with Urban Migrants and Urban Natives in Des Moines, Iowa. Bulletin 534. Washington, D. C. and Ames, Iowa: U. S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service and

Iowa Agricultural Experiment Station, 1965.
Differences found when comparing rural migrants, urban migrants, and natives in Des Moines were accounted for by differences in levels of education, but differences in occupational achievement were not significant when analysis was controlled for age and length of time in the city.

0046. Baum, E. L., and Heady, Earl O. "Some Effects of Selected Policy Programs on Agricultural Labor Mobility in the South." Southern Economic Journal, 25 (January, 1959), 327-337.

0047. Baumgartner, H. W. "Potential Mobility in Agriculture: Some Reasons for the Existence of a Labor-Transfer Problem." Journal of Farm Economics, 47 (February, 1965), 74-82.

0048. Beale, Calvin L. "Demographic and Social Considerations for U. S. Rural Economic Policy." American Journal of Agricultural Economics, (May, 1969).

0049. Beale, Calvin L. "Farm to City Migration is Nearing End in United States," New York Times, March 23, 1969.

0050. Beale, Calvin L. "Natural Decrease of Population: The Current Prospective Status of an Emergent American Phenomenon." Unpublished paper prepared of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, n.d.

0051. Beale, Calvin L. Negro Farm Operators: Number, Location and Recent Trends. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1959.
In recent years the Negro farm population has declined as has the total farm population. About 42% of Negro farm people of 1940 still living in 1950 had left farms during the decade. The author includes a discussion of factors associated with trends.

0052. Beale, Calvin L. "The Relation of Gross Out-Migration Rates to Net Migration." Unpublished paper prepared for the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, 1968.

0053. Beale, Calvin L. "Rural Depopulation in the United States: Some Demographic Consequences of Agricultural Adjustments." Demography, 1 (1964), 264-272.

0054. Beale, Calvin L. "Rural-Urban Migration of Blacks: Past and Future." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Agricultural Economics Association, Detroit, Michigan, December 19, 1970. (Typewritten.)
Findings from the USDA-UGA study are given; data used were from the 1967 SEO tapes. Major points include the following: (1) It is only among whites that rural-urban

migrants show a consistently greater amount of poverty than do urban natives. (2) Black urban families headed by a migrant of rural origin did not experience lower average income than other black urban families; a factor acting to produce this parity of income was the more normal composition of the rural migrant family. (3) Among blacks, the rural-urban migrant family or individual was nominally slightly more likely than urban natives to have received welfare income assistance. (4) Rural-urban black migrant families were somewhat less likely to have received welfare money than were blacks still living in rural areas. (5) Black rural-urban male migrants were just as likely to have had some employment in the preceding year compared to their urban-reared neighbors. (6) In the future, rural-urban migrants will not comprise as high a proportion of the urban population as they have in the recent past. (7) "There is no question that the vast rural-urban movement after 1940 was the major source of the rapid growth of black urban population. As such, it was a major contributor to those urban problems associated with black growth and congestion per se, but was probably not critical to the changed politico-cultural mood and stance of the urban black population."

0055. Beale, Calvin L., Banks, Vera J., and Bowles, Gladys K. Trends and Outlook for Rural Migration. Washington,D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1966.

0056. Beale, Calvin L., Hudson, John C., and Banks, Vera J. Characteristics of the U. S. Population by Farm and Non-farm Origin. Agricultural Economics Report No. 66. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1964. Data used are from the Census' 1958 CPS. Topics discussed include number, present farm status, and color of farm-born people, sex differences, age differences, marital status, regional patterns and interregional migration, employment status, occupational and industrial status, return migration, and farm residents of non-farm birth. Findings include the following: (1) Among farm-born people there has been no difference overall in the proportions of whites and nonwhites who have left the farm, but since the proportion of nonwhites born on farms is higher than for whites, equal white and non-white rates of outmigration have weighted the nonwhite population residing in cities more heavily with persons of farm origin than is true for whites. (2) Girls leave the farm in greater numbers than boys and at a somewhat earlier age. (3) The farm-born population is an older group than the non-farm born. (4) Interregional migration of farm people has been highest for the North

Central states. (5) The largest single stream of interregional movement has been from the North Central states to the West. (6) People who have moved from farms to non-farm areas are equally as likely to be in the labor force as are non-farm natives, except at young adult ages. (7) Farm-born people compared to the non-farm group are underrepresented in white collar jobs at all ages. (8) Data do not show any sharp differences in the characteristics of return migrants compared to farm people who had not left the farm or who left and remained away. (9) For every six farm people who have left farms, one nonfarm native has moved to a farm.

0057. Beale, George M., Wakeley, Ray E., and Russell, Amy. Iowa's People-1965. MA-582. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State College, Cooperative Extension Service, 1957.
This supplies data on age, sex, residence, migration, and occupation, with predictions to 1965. The farm population, number of farm operators, farm job opportunities and potential farm labor force from 1950 to 1965 indicated that in 1965, 36% of the farm men would probably have to seek job opportunities outside agriculture.

0058. Beall, John W. "A Study of Population and Capital Movements Involving the South." Dissertation Abstracts, 14 (1954), 1957-1958.
This dissertation shows that more Southern migrants move from urban residences than would be expected on the basis of the regional rural-urban distribution of population. Southern migration is a two-stage movement--from Southern farm to southern city--then to non-Southern city.

0059. Beals, R. E., Levy, M. B., and Moses, L. N. "Rationality and Migration in Ghana." Review of Economics and Statistics, 49 (November, 1967), 480-486.

0060. Beardwood, Roger. "The Southern Roots of Urban Crisis." Fortune, 78 (August,1968), 80-87, 151-156.
This article discusses the Negroes' migration to the North, to the cities, and to the better-paying jobs. It also includes heavy criticism of U. S. agricultural policies.

0061. Becker, Gary. Human Capital. New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1964.

0062. Beegle, J. Allan, and Thaden, John F. Population Change in Michigan with Special Reference to Rural-Urban Migration, 1940-50. Special Bulletin 387. East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station, 1953.
This bulletin shows analyses of migration as a factor of population growth, by economic areas, and includes discussions of changes in the rural and urban population

through net migration and agricultural and industrial factors related to migration. Birth and death rates and future population prospects are also included.

0063. Beers, Howard W. Mobility of Rural Population: A Study of Changes in Two Types of Rural Communities. Bulletin 505. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1947.
The authors make a comparison of mobility patterns in Johnson (subsistence farming) and Robertson (Bluegrass) region) Counties, Kentucky, in 1941. Differences in mobility were found to be of degree rather than kind. In both counties, individuals, especially rural youth, were more mobile than families.

0064. Beers, Howard W., and Heflin, Catherine P. People and Resources in Eastern Kentucky. A Study of a Representative Area in Breathitt, Knott, and Perry Counties. Bulletin 500. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1947.
Migration from farms and better use of land which is unsuitable for agriculture are two of the suggestions given as means of relieving the pressure of population on resources in this eastern Kentucky area.

0065. Beers, Howard W., and Heflin, Catherine P. Rural People in the City: A Study of the Socioeconomic Status of 297 Families in Lexington, Kentucky. Bulletin 478. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1945.
The authors discuss the differences in behavior and characteristics of rural-reared and urban-reared people. Their ultimate economic and social statuses were not predetermined by rural or urban rearing, although the rural migrants were at a disadvantage in the competition for incomes and jobs.

0066. Beers, Howard W., and Heflin, Catherine P. "The Urban Status of Rural Migrants." Social Forces, 23 (1944), 32-37.

0067. Beijer, G. National Rural Manpower Adjustment to Industry. Part III. Labour Mobility. Paris: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1965.

0068. Bendix, Reinhard, and Lipset, Seymour M. (eds.) Class, Status and Power. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1953.

0069. Benewitz, Maurice C. "Economic Factors in Migration to St. Paul, Minnesota, 1940-50." Dissertation Abstracts, 14 (1954), 937-938.
The author tests job versus wage motivation in migration and examines differences in skill levels of rural-urban and inter-urban migration.

0070. Benewitz, Maurice C. "Migrant and Nonmigrant Occupational Patterns." *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 9 (January, 1956), 255-406.
* Data for the study include a sample of 278 male migrants, 25 years old and over in St. Paul, Minnesota, in 1950. Hypotheses tested were: (1) Occupations of rural migrants are not significantly different from those of the St. Paul population, and (2) Rural male migrants not in the professional, technical, managerial, and kindred classifications are similarly distributed by occupation to the 73% of the St. Paul male population not in the professional, technical, managerial, and kindred class. The first hypothesis was supported, but the second was rejected.

0071. Bennett, R. L. "Surplus Agricultural Labor and Development--Facts and Theories: Comment." *American Economic Review*, 57(1) (March, 1967).

0072. Berardo, F. M. "Kinship and Interaction and Communications among Space Age Migrants." *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 29 (August, 1967), 541-554.

0073. Berardo, F. M. "Kinship and Interaction and Migrant Adaptation in an Aero-Space Related Community." *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 28 (August, 1966), 296-304.

0074. Bernard, Sydney E. *The Economic and Social Adjustment of Low-Income Female-Headed Families.* Research Project Report 004. Welfare and Social Security Administration Cooperative Research and Demonstration Grants Program. Waltham, Mass.: Brandeis University, 1964. (Mimeographed.)

0075. Bernert, Eleanor H. *County Variation in Net Migration from the Rural-Farm Population, 1930-40.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1944.
The author presents estimates of net change due to migration and migration rates for counties.

0076. Bernert, Eleanor H. *Volume and Composition of Net Migration from the Rural-Farm Population, 1930-40, for the United States, Major Geographic Divisions and States.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1944.
The author shows that losses from the rural-farm population were proportionately greater among nonwhites than whites and among females than males.

0077. Bernert, Eleanor H., and Bowles, Gladys K. *Farm Migration, 1940-45: An Annotated Bibliography.* Library List 38. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1947. OP.

0078. Berry, Brian. *Potential Growth Centers and Growth Center Potential in the Upper Great Lakes Region.* A Report to the Upper Great Lakes Regional Commission, October, 1968.

0079. Berry, Brian. "Spatial Organization and Levels of Welfare: Degree of Metropolitan Labor Market Participation as a Variable in Economic Development." Paper presented at the Economic Development Administration Research Conference, Washington, D. C., October, 1967.

0080. Berry, Charles H. *Occupational Migration from Agriculture, 1940-1950.* Chicago: University of Chicago Library, 1956.

0081. Berry, R. Albert, and Soligo, Ronald. "Rural-Urban Migration, Agricultural Output, and the Supply Price of Labour in a Labour-Surplus Economy." *Oxford Economic Papers*, 29(2) (July, 1968), 230-249.

0082. Bertrand, Alvin L. *Agricultural Mechanization and Social Change in Rural Louisiana.* Bulletin 458. Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana Agricultural Experiment Station, 1951.
Examination of changes in the rural-farm population, 1930-45, by Farm Mechanization Groups, revealed that the least mechanized parishes lost more farm people than all others. However, the number of farm people leaving parishes in the other Mechanized Groups (over one-fifth in every instance) left no doubt that mechanization has some relationship to the depopulation of rural areas.

0083. Bertrand, Alvin L. "The Rural Population." *Rural Sociology: An Analysis of Contemporary Social Life.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958. Pp. 51-75.
The author discusses four topics: (1) number and distribution, (2) composition and characteristics, (3) nature of vital processes (including migration) among rural people, and (4) rural population trends.

0084. Bertrand, Alvin L., and Osborne, Harold W. *Rural Industrialization in a Louisiana Community.* Bulletin 524. Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana Agricultural Experiment Station, 1959.
Effects of new industries in rural areas on levels of living, occupational adjustments, migration patterns, and individual family incomes of both employee and non-employee families are discussed. Factory employment did not entice a large proportion of the workers to move from farms and other open-country residences to towns and cities.

0085. Beshers, J. M., and Nishiura, E. N. "A Theory of Internal
* Migration Differentials." *Social Forces*, 39 (1961), 214-218.
Census data on streams of internal migration in Indiana 1935-40 and 1949-50 are used. Hypotheses: "(1) When a change in locale is involved, the amount of migration within the professional category will be greater than the amount of migration within other occupation categories;

(2) The amount of migration among farmers and farm managers is less than the amount of migration among most other occupation groups; (3) More migration will occur among young adults than among other age groups; (4) Migration among persons 65 and over will be greater than that within the age category immediately preceding theirs except in streams of a rural area of origin; (5) 15-19 year olds' migration from rural areas in a particular stream is less among those with six or fewer years of education than among other education groups; (7) The amount of migration among those who have a college education will be greater than the amount among other education groups in the same stream; (8) In urban-urban and urban-nonadjacent suburban streams proprietors, managers, and officials will migrate more than the majority of occupational groups; (9) In urban-urban and suburban-nonadjacent urban streams, migration of craftsmen and foremen and operatives and kindred workers is less than migration of other occupational groups; and (10) In rural-rural streams, the amount of migration among farm laborers will be much greater than the amount of migration among farmers and farm managers." Hypotheses were supported in all but the first case.

0086. Bhare, H. G. "The Nature of the Problem of Labor Turnover." Indian Journal of Economics, 36 (April, 1956), 379-385.

0087. Billingsley, Andrew. Black Families in White America. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1968.

0088. Bishop, C. E. "Economic Aspects of Migration from Farms."
* Farm Policy Forum, 13(2) (1960-61), 14-20. "Migration has failed to equalize returns for farm and nonfarm labor because the number of people who are willing to transfer to nonfarm jobs at prevailing rates of return exceeds the number of jobs available. Migration increases when jobs become available in spite of the fact that during these periods the return per worker in agriculture increases relative to the return per worker in nonfarm employment. The rate of migration decreases as unemployment increases....The analysis lends support to the idea that a critical level of unemployment in terms of providing motivation for nonfarm migration develops when unemployment reaches 5% of the labor force....When underemployment is the result of lack of knowledge concerning nonfarm employment opportunities, underemployment results from a malfunctioning knowledge market....Underemployment can be removed only if the number of additional nonfarm jobs created exceeds the new entries to the labor force."

0089. Bishop, C. E. Federal Programs for the Development of

Human Resources. Vol. I. *The Need for Improved Mobility Policy.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.
This paper summarizes some research findings pertaining to the occupational and geographic mobility of labor and suggests programs to improve mobility. The transfer of human resources from farming has been massive as the farm population has declined from 31 million in 1920 to less than 12 million in 1967. The typical rural Negro migrant moves to a large urban area outside the South. The white movement is oriented toward medium-sized Northern cities and the metropolitan areas of the South. As the exodus from the farms takes place, people are moving to rural areas, either because of preference for living there or because they are disillusioned with nonfarm employment. There is increasing evidence that most decisions to migrate result in social waste because they are based on incomplete information. Off-farm migration operates largely through an informal process dependent upon friends and relatives. Several policy directions emerge from this analysis: 1) Full employment is a necessary condition for a reduction in the backflow and for rationalization of mobility; 2) Since a high proportion of migrants are in the younger age groups, a better job should be done in occupational preparation; 3) A nation-wide comprehensive manpower program is needed to provide improved job information to potential employees; and 4) A system of relocation payments provided through and based upon the advice and counsel of the Employment Security Commission would yield high returns.

0090. Blalock, H. M., Jr. "Urbanization and Discrimination in the South." *Social Problems*, 7 (Fall, 1959), 146-152.

0091. Blanco, Cicely. "The Determinants of Interstate Population Movement." *Journal of Rural Sociology*, 5(1) (1963), 77-84.

0092. Blanco, Cicely. "Prospective Unemployment and Interstate Population Movement." *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 46 (May, 1964), 221-222.

0093. Blau, Peter M., and Duncan, Otis Dudley. *The American Occupational Structure.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967.

0094. Blau, Peter M., and Duncan, Otis Dudley. "Farm Background and Occupational Achievement." *The American Occupational Structure.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967. Pp. 277-294.
This chapter discusses the effect of farm origin on sub-

sequent occupational achievement. The magnitude of the movement off the farms is reflected in the Occupational Changes in a Generation (OCG) data. Over one-fourth of the men in the OCG population had fathers who were, at the age of 16, engaged in farming. Three-fourths of the fathers had taken up nonfarm residence by 1962. Analysis shows an inverse relationship between the in-migration rate and size of community. Large cities were found to be the least favorable environment for men with farm backgrounds. However, the factor of race confounds the comparison. Tabulations do not permit a thorough study of the interaction between farm background and size of community. The best guess is that farm background is not an obstacle to occupational achievement.

0095. Blau, Peter M., and Duncan, Otis Dudley. "Geographical and Social Mobility." The American Occupational Structure. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1967. Pp. 243-275. The authors found careers of migrants superior to those of nonmigrants. This finding is explained in terms of selective migration and urbanization. Since migration is selective of men with high potential, the achievements of migrants are superior not only to those men they left behind, but also to those they join in their new community. Urbanization had paradoxical consequences for migration. Better opportunities in cities attract migration and improve opportunities for most migrants. On the other hand, most migrants are coming from less urban areas in which they received poor training to highly urbanized markets. These two opposite influences affect occupational chances and occupational achievements.

0096. Blevins, A. L. "Migration Rates in Twelve Southern Metropolitan Areas: A 'Push-Pull' Analysis." Social Science Quarterly, 50(2) (September, 1969), 337-353.

0097. Blizzard, Samuel W., and Macklin, E. John. Social Participation Patterns of Husbands and Wives Who Are Migrants to the City. Serial Paper 1722. University Park, Penn.: Pennsylvania Agricultural Experiment Station, 1952. Findings from this study of Pittsburgh and adjacent smaller urban centers indicate that the rural migrant participates in fewer organizations and takes part in less informal activities than either the urban migrant or nonmigrant. Although the rural migrant is a low participant, he contributes more proportionately to leadership in organizations than the nonmigrant.

0098. Blum, Zahava D., Karweit, N. L., and Sorensen, A. B. A Method for the Collection and Analysis of Retrospective Life Histories. Report No. 48. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University, Center for the Study of the Social Organization of Schools, 1969.

0099. Blum, Zahava D., *et al.* *Manpower Research through the Use of Retrospective Occupational Histories. III. Migration and Household Composition: A Comparison between Blacks and Nonblacks.* Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University, 1970.

0100. Blumberg, Leonard. *Migration as a Program Area for Urban Social Work.* Philadelphia: The Urban League of Philadelphia, 1958.
Interviewing conducted in the late 1950's showed that only 12% of black inmigrants gave job-related reasons for their moves, while 65% gave presence of friends/relatives. The needs of rural inmigrants once they are in the city differ from those of interurban migrants, the latters' needs consisting mainly of information about the city, while rural inmigrants need education in adjusting to city life.

0101. Blumberg, Leonard. *A Pilot Study of Recent Negro Migrants into Philadelphia.* Philadelphia: The Urban League of Philadelphia, 1958.

0102. Blumberg, Leonard, and Bell, Robert R. "Urban Migration and Kinship Ties." *Social Problems*, 6 (Spring, 1959), 328-333.
This study is an attempt to modify, in the light of empirical materials, the analysis of Park and Burgess and their students who contend that the importance of family and kinship are declining in our urban society to be replaced by secondary associations and relations. The position of the authors is that "the family and kinship are important more for some population elements in the urban community than for others and hence the dysfunctional rural-to-urban 'adjustment' analysis may be limited in its application." The study focuses on what are externally the "most urban" areas--the areas that have high concentrations of recent migrants from rural areas. These populations of rural origin tend to keep their "old values" and organize their lives along patterns similar to those in the areas they left.
Most of the migrants report they had relatives in the city they migrated to and reported that they received assistance in finding jobs and housing. However, the data indicate that the relatives and close friends are probably more psychologically supportive than functionally effective. The decline in family ties is closely related to young, single adult male migrants. For these young males, local family ties are hard to establish and the urban setting encourages impersonal relationships. However, the institution of "the neighborhood tavern" seems to fulfill some of the functions of the missing kinship structure. Most of the populations studied are lower class.

"It is probable that lower-class kinship activity is more direct and encompasses more of the total number of interpersonal relationships of persons than middle-class activity." Thus, the conclusion is that lower-class migrants turn to relatives because it is the natural thing to do, and, failing to have relatives, the migrant establishes "pseudo-kin relationships" with people from the same background. Middle-class kinship ties, in contrast, hinder social mobility. The spatially mobile migrant who achieves social mobility must very often modify or even drop old family ties.

0103. Bodenhoffer, H. J. "The Mobility of Labor and the Theory of Human Capital." Journal of Human Resources, 2(4) (Fall, 1967).

0104. Bogue, Donald J. Components of Population Change, 1940-50: Estimates of Net Migration and Natural Increase for Each Standard Metropolitan Area and State Economic Area. Oxford, Ohio: Scripps Foundation, 1957.

0105. Bogue, Donald J. Scripps Foundation Studies in Population. Distribution. Vol. I. An Exploratory Study of Migration and Labor Mobility Using Social Security Data. Oxford, Ohio: Scripps Foundation, 1950.

0106. Bogue, Donald J. "Internal Migration." The Study of Population. Edited by Philip Hauser and Otis Dudley Duncan. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959. Pp. 486-509.
In this chapter, the following subjects are discussed: (1) problem of defining internal migration; (2) definitions of concepts and terms used in migration analysis; (3) direct and indirect methods of measuring migration; and (4) a summary of existing knowledge, which includes the topics migration-stimulating situations for persons, factors in choosing a destination, socioeconomic conditions affecting migration, knowledge about migration streams, and knowledge about differential migration.

0107. Bogue, Donald J. "Internal Migration and Residential
* Mobility." The Population of the United States. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1959. Pp. 375-418.
The author utilizes the Census of 1950, various reports of the Bureau of the Census, existing researches, and special researches done for projects, and emphasized description and interpretation of internal migration during 1950-60 and historical trends and changes in the recent past. The major topics discussed are the extent of internal mobility, the differential mobility of different segments, the effect of internal migration upon the regional distribution of population, interregional migration, migration and metropolitanization,

selectivity of internal migration, and factors underlying internal migration.

0108. Bogue, Donald J. Scripps Foundation Studies in Population Distribution. Vol. IV. A Methodological Study of Migration and Labor Mobility in Ohio in 1947. Oxford, Ohio: Scripps Foundation, 1952.

0109. Bogue, Donald J. Methods of Studying Internal Migration. Oxford, Ohio: Scripps Foundation, 1955.

0110. Bogue, Donald J. Principles of Demography. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1969.

0111. Bogue, Donald J., and Hagood, Margaret J. Subregional Migration in the United States, 1935-40. Vol. II. Differential Migration in the Corn and Cotton Belts. Oxford, Ohio: Scripps Foundation, 1953.
The authors use special tabulations from the 1940 Census to analyze 12 basic differentials of migration. Attention is focused on place of migrants' origin by size of community and place of destination, with emphasis on the former.

0112. Bogue, Donald J., Shryock, H. S., and Hoermann, S. A. Subregional Migration in the United States. Vol. I. Streams of Migration Flow between Environments. Oxford, Ohio: Scripps Foundation, 1957.
Nine residential streams of migration are explored with emphasis on characteristics of migrants. Migration was largely a movement between communities of the same type; volume of migration from rural to urban areas was comparatively small.

0113. Bogue, Donald J., and Thompson, Warren S. "Migration and Distance." American Sociological Review, 14 (1949), 236-244.
Evidence from 1935-40 data indicates that there is a close inverse relationship between the distance to be traveled and the rate of migration out of an area. Distance is less of a barrier to the migration of the urban than of the rural population. Redistribution of population between rural and urban areas is found to be accomplished primarily by short-distance migration.

0114. Bohlen, Joe M., and Wakeley, Ray E. "Intentions to Migrate and Actual Migration of Rural High School Graduates." Rural Sociology, 15(4) (December, 1950), 328-334.
Findings from interviews of 157 graduating high school seniors of the rural high schools in Hamilton County and Story City, Iowa, and a follow-up one year later indicate that farm and nonfarm girls and nonfarm boys were much alike in their migration patterns but differed significantly from farm boys in this respect. Factors

such as communication with parents, socioeconomic status of family, parental educational levels, age of parents and attitude toward farm life were related to migration patterns of respondents.

0115. Bonnen, James T. "The Distribution of Benefits from Selected U. S. Farm Programs." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 461-505. The relative distributions for eight different commodity programs are described. These are the Rice Program, the Wheat Program, the Feed Grain Program, the Cotton Program, the Peanut Program, the Tobacco Program, the Sugar Program, and the Sugarcane Program. The author states, "...these programs would not be an efficient means of improving the welfare of the lowest income groups on farms....the lowest 40% of farmers received much less than a proportionate share of the program benefits."

0116. Boone, Richard W., and Kurland, Norman. "A Look at Rural Poverty." New Generation, 50 (Summer, 1968), 2-5. The authors state that migration of the rural poor has produced urban ghettos which are powder kegs. Farm income, already low, is declining. Rural poverty is concentrated regionally and ethnically; it is found particularly in the South, and it is characteristic of Negroes, Mexican-Americans, and Indians. Racial discrimination increases the plight of Negro farmers, and government agricultural programs have not helped this group. The rural poor need: (1) new ways for each person to receive adequate income; (2) a proportionate share of political power; and (3) access to the full range of services for participation in modern society. The authors suggest that we need a rural answer to the Model Cities program, based on community life and designed to help people remain where they are by attracting capital which will generate income and jobs. Provisions of the National Labor Relations Act, it is felt, should be extended to farm workers, with workmen's compensation, unemployment insurance, a minimum wage, the Child Labor Law, and other protections of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

0117. Borts, George H. "The Equalization of Returns and Regional Economic Growth." American Economic Review, 50(3) (June, 1960), 319-347.

0118. Borts, George H. "Patterns of Regional Economic Development in the United States, and Their Relation to Rural Poverty." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report

of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 130-140.
Economics Professor Borts examines economic growth and decline among major regions of the U. S., economic effects of intraregional resource movements and interregional migration, supply and demand factors in regional growth, and debtor and creditor regions. He presents three alternatives of public policies designed to alleviate rural poverty: (1) relocation of industry to rural areas, (2) industrial and residential location in growth centers, or (3) subsidized migration to established metropolitan areas. The choice of which policy is most effective is given to (2) over (3) above (even though the author says that "there are strong economic grounds for continuing the migratory patterns which have been established") because (a) the willingness to migrate declines with the distance to the destination area, so rural inhabitants will have less objection to moving to a growth center, and (b) whatever social maladjustments are produced by large-scale migration from rural to urban life would seem to be minimized through the use of the growth center as a staging area for cultural change, and (c) the continued migration of the rural poor to Northern and Western cities has changed the quality of urban life. Many city dwellers are moving to the suburbs as a result, and many, the author feels, would probably gladly finance a center where the rural poor could learn about the city life "somewhere else."

0119. Borts, George H., et al. "Problem of Raising Incomes in Lagging Sectors of the Economy: Discussion." American Economic Review, 50 (May, 1960), 251-257.

0120. Bottum, J. Carroll. "The Impact of Anticipated Trends and Shifts of Population upon American Agriculture." Proceedings of the Agricultural Industries Conference. Ithaca: Cornell University, Graduate School of Business and Public Administration in cooperation with the New York State College of Agriculture, 1956. Pp. 43-49.

0121. Bowen, William G., and Finegan, T. Aldrich. The Economics of Labor Force Participation. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University, 1969.

0122. Bowles, Gladys K. Farm Population...Net Migration from Rural-Farm Population, 1940-1950. Statistical Bulletin 176. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1956.

0123. Bowles, Gladys K. "Migration Patterns of the Rural-Farm Population, Thirteen Economic Regions of the United States, 1940-50." Rural Sociology, 22 (March, 1957), 1-11.

The net outmigration rate for the decade was found to be 31%. Rates for the teenaged and young adults were highest, rates for children and persons 25-44 were low, and rates for persons over 45 were intermediate. Young women tend to migrate earlier than young men. Nonwhites had higher rates than whites. Economic Regions IX and X had highest rates, and Regions XII and XIII, the lowest.

0124. Bowles, Gladys K. Migration of Population in the South: Situation and Prospects. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1958.
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The author states that, "In recent years a net annual loss through movement to and from farms or through change in classification of residences of over one million persons has occurred in the country as a whole. Sixty percent of this net loss took place in the South. Prospects are that, in the future, migration from the South as a whole will continue for some time. The annual average loss of population as a result of migration may be about 200,000 between the present time and 1970....Since the numbers of men leaving working ages are likely to be only about half the numbers entering the working ages in the South, a minimum of 50% of the rural-farm young men will be looking for employment opportunities outside agriculture. And a substantial proportion of these young people will migrate from farms to find such opportunities."

0125. Bowles, Gladys K. Migration of the Texas Farm Population. Bulletin 847. College Station, Tex.: Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1957.

0126. Bowles, Gladys K. Processes Associated with Migration, with Special Reference to Population Redistribution in the Great Plains between 1950 and 1960. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1962.

0127. Bowles, Gladys K. "A Profile of the Incidence of Poverty among Rural-Urban Migrants and Comparative Populations." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, Washington, D. C., August 26-30, 1970. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, 1970. (Typewritten.)
This paper is based on the USDA-UGA study, using 1967 SEO data and presents an over-all view of the socioeconomic position of persons of rural background who were living in urban places in 1967. Rural-urban migrants are compared with rural nonmigrants and rural-rural migrants (rural population) and with urban nonmigrants and urban-urban migrants (urban population). Information for urban-rural migrants is included in the tables but not discussed. It is shown that a much larger pro-

portion of the rural population is in poverty than of rural-urban migrants for family heads, unrelated individuals, and the total population age 17 and over. In the three populations and among all characteristics examined, incidence of poverty was usually higher for Negroes than for whites. Generally, in all three populations, incidence of poverty was higher in nonmetropolitan areas than in metropolitan areas; higher in middle-sized metro areas than in large and small areas; higher in central cities than in rings of metro areas; and higher in the South than in the rest of the U. S. Among rural-urban migrants, incidence of poverty was higher among: 1) persons of farm origin rather than those of rural-nonfarm origin; 2) persons making a direct move to a metro area rather than those having an intervening move; 3) persons making at least two moves to a nonmetro area rather than those making a direct move to a nonmetro area; and 4) interregional migrants of Southern origin rather than interregional migrants of non-Southern origin. Generally, rural-urban whites were found to be relatively better off over rural counterparts. The author states, "It may be concluded that, on the whole, persons who migrated from rural to urban areas have bettered their socioeconomic positions. They may also have been of above average status at the time of move." Further, "With few exceptions, white rural-urban migrants had about the same or higher incidences of poverty than white people in the urban population of urban origin, regardless of characteristics examined. The relationship between the incidence of poverty among Negro rural-urban migrants and the Negro population of urban origin was irregular." "In none of the characteristic divisions of the population had rural-urban Negro migrants reached or surpassed the levels of the white populations they were living among, and the incidence of poverty among Negroes is often several times as high as that of whites." Incidence of poverty among rural-urban migrants is closely associated with low education, poor health, incomplete or irregular family arrangements, multiple marriages, excessive numbers of children, lack of or sporadic employment, and poor jobs in industries characterized by low wages and salaries. White and Negro rural-urban migrants are found to be better educated than rural origin population. Whites had about the same education as urban-origin whites (12 years), whereas rural-urban blacks had less education than urban-origin whites and blacks. Median years education of rural-urban Negroes was 8.8 years, about the same as for whites living in poverty conditions in 1967. A higher proportion of both Negro and white rural-urban migrants than of either of the comparative populations had been married more than once. A higher proportion of Negroes had been married more than once in all populations considered. In 1966, about the same proportion of white and Negro males of rural origin (still rural or migrant) were employed, but this proportion was slightly lower than for urban males. The author states, "It must be noted that among both family heads and unrelated individuals, a smaller proportion of rural-urban migrants than of the rural population still in rural areas was receiving welfare public assistance."

0128. Bowles, Gladys K. Some Previews of Population Changes in Low-Income Farming Areas. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1960.
The author finds that low-income farming areas show relatively low increases or decreases in population compared with the nation as a whole in spite of their high birth rate. This indicates heavy outmigration of persons seeking employment opportunities elsewhere.

0129. Bowles, Gladys K. "Urban Migration of Rural Youth: Related Factors, Personal Adjustments and Urban Assimilation." Rural Youth in Crisis: Facts, Myth and Social Change. Edited by Lee G. Burchinal. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.

0130. Bowles, Gladys K., and Tarver, James D. "The Composition of New Migration among Counties in the United States, 1950-60." Agricultural Economics Research, (January, 1966).

0131. Bowles, Gladys K., and Tarver, James D. Net Migration of the Population, 1950-1960, by Age, Sex and Color. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.

0132. Bowles, Gladys K., Bacon, A. Lloyd, and Ritchey, P. Neal. "Rural-Urban Migrants, 1967: A Comparison of the Demographic, Social and Economic Characteristics of Rural-Urban Migrants with Other Population Groups." Washington, D. C. and Athens, Ga.: U. S. Department of Agriculture and the University of Georgia, In process.

0133. Bowles, Gladys K., Beale, Calvin L., and Bradshaw, Benjamin S. Potential Supply and Replacement of Rural Males of Labor Force Age, 1960-1970. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1966.
Estimates are presented of the numbers of men expected to be entering and leaving the working-age groups in the rural population of the U. S. during the 1960-70 decade. Measures are shown for the rural population and its component residence categories, farm and nonfarm, and for the total, white and nonwhite population of these resi-

dence categories for the U. S., regions, geographic divisions, states, economic subregions, state economic areas, and counties. Most of the data presented are for the age group 20-64.

0134. Bowles, Samuel. "Migration as Investment: Empirical Tests of the Human Investment Approach to Geographical Mobility." Discussion Paper No. 51. Program on Regional and Urban Economics. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, 1969.

0135. Bowman, Mary Jean. "Human Inequalities and Southern Underdevelopment." Southern Economic Journal, (July, 1965), 517-537.

0136. Bowman, Mary Jean, and Haynes, W. Warren. Resources and People in East Kentucky: Problems and Potentials of a Lagging Economy. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1963.

0137. Bowman, Mary Jean, and Myers, R. G. "Schooling, Experience and Gains and Losses in Human Capital through Migration." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 62(319) (September, 1967).

0138. Bowring, J. R., and Durgin, O. B. The Population of New
* Hampshire. Vol. IV. Factors Influencing the Attitudes of Farmers toward Migration Off Farms. Bulletin 458. N.p.: New Hampshire Agricultural Experiment Station, 1958.
The findings are based on interview data from 253 farm operators in New Hampshire concerning their attitudes toward leaving the farm and factors influencing these attitudes. Seven factors were hypothesized to be related to these attitudes: age, education, farm improvements, migration of children, community ties, and farm indebtedness.

0139. Bracey, H. E. "A Note on Rural Depopulation and Social Provision." American Sociological Review, 6 (1958), 67-74.

0140. Bracey, H. E. "Some Aspects of Rural Depopulation in the United Kingdom." Rural Sociology, 23 (December, 1958), 385-391.

0141. Bramhall, D. F., and Bryce, H. J. "Interstate Migration of Labor-Force Age Population." Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 22(4) (July, 1969).

0142. Breazeale, Norma J. "Association of Selected Socio-Economic
* Characteristics with Net Migration from Three Kentucky Economic Areas, 1920-1950." Unpublished master's thesis, University of Kentucky, 1958.
The author uses Census data for 1920-50 on migrants from three Kentucky economic areas and tests hypothesized

relationships between migration flow and four other factors: economic level, level of transportation facilities, level of communication, and strength of locality ties. The author states, "The dominant association revealed in this analysis...was the highly significant negative correlation of economic level with net outmigration. Economic level was found to be highly associated, not only with migration, but also with...levels of transportation and communication and strength of locality ties....The findings of high negative correlations between economic level and volume of out-migration offered definite support for an explanation of migration as a response to economic differentials. The theory was further supported by the appearance of higher correlations when economic differentials were assumed to be greater for the study areas- in periods of agricultural depression coincident with industrial prosperity, and in the decline of the area's leading industry."

0143. Breed, Warren. "Suicide, Migration and Race: A Study of Cases in New Orleans." *Journal of Social Issues*, 22(1) (January, 1966), 30-43.
This paper examines the consequences of urban migration for suicide. The consequences of migration to urban areas were found to vary by sex, race, duration of residence, and the difference between life styles in the old and the new home community. The low Negro suicide rate in New Orleans was examined. The less urbanized South was found to offer more protection of its people.

0144. Brewster, John M. "The Impact of Technical Advance and Migration on Agricultural Society and Policy." *Journal of Farm Economics*, 41 (December, 1959), 1169-1184.
Two main conclusions are: (1) Agriculture is a competitive industry in a larger world where less than fully competitive markets are widespread, and where there is normally much less than full employment; and (2) Agriculture is afflicted with a rate of technical advance that expands aggregate farm output appreciably faster than the growth of effective demand for farm products. These conditions are said to preclude outfarm migration by itself from providing a long-run solution to the problems of excess capacity and the relatively low income in agriculture.

0145. Brice, E. W. "Education of the Adult Migrant." Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1961.

0146. Bright, Margaret L., and Lively, Charles E. *Farm Youth in Missouri.* Bulletin 504. Columbia, Mo.: *Missouri Agricultural* Experiment Station, 1947.
The authors cite estimates of net outmigration of farm

youth in this examination of numbers of youth, and their health, schooling, and employment.

0147. Bright, Margaret L., and Thomas, D. S. "Interstate Migration and Intervening Opportunities." American Sociological Review, 6 (December, 1941), 773-783.

0148. Brinker, Paul A. Economic Insecurity and Social Security. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1968.
This book contains surveys of social insurance and public assistance. Special focus is placed on poverty among agricultural workers, Negroes, Spanish-Americans, and American Indians, and the various programs for these special groups. There is a chapter on improved education and housing, and the concluding chapter has a section about the "war on poverty."

0149. Brody, Eugene B. (ed.) Behavior in New Environments:Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970.
This book includes sections on dimensions of migration, rural-urban migration, the socioculture and individual behavior problems of migrants, and program planning and research. Annotations of various chapters appear elsewhere in this bibliography.

0150. Brody, Eugene B. (ed.) Migration and Human Adaptation. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1970.

0151. Broom, Leonard, and Glenn, Norval D. "When Will America's Negroes Catch Up?" New Society, (March, 1965).

0152. Browder, Walter Gordon. The Pattern of Internal Mobility in Texas: A Subregional Analysis. Publication No. 4434. Austin, Tex.: University of Texas, 1944.
This is a study of internal migration within the State of Texas which tries to establish the patterns of mobility in several Texas subregions. It contains 38 statistical tables in which some data on Mexican-Americans can be found.

0153. Brown, Claude Harold. "Personal and Social Characteristics
* Associated with Migrant Status among Adult Males from Rural Pennsylvania." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1960.
Findings are based on a sample of 974 young adult males from the rural areas of Pennsylvania, contacted in 1947 when sophomores in rural high schools and reinterviewed in 1957. The purpose of this study was to ascertain the influence of selected factors related to the migration of rural youth. An examination of the mobility pattern revealed that nearly three-fourths of the young people remained in rural areas, the rest migrating to urban areas. Intelligence, personality adjustment, rank and

and types of parental occupations, and amount and type of education were not related to migration status. Married people migrated more than single ones.

0154. Brown, Claude Harold, and Buck, Roy C. *Factors Associated with the Migrant Status of Young Adult Males from Rural Pennsylvania.* Bulletin 676. University Park, Penn.: Pennsylvania Agricultural Experiment Station, 1961. A ten year (1947-1957) study of men, beginning when they were high school sophomores until they were 25 years old, found no significant differences between migrants and nonmovers on IQ score, personality adjustment, or parental family's occupational prestige, but migrants were found more often to be single and better educated than nonmigrants.

0155. Brown, Hugh H. "People Come- and People Go: 23-Year Migration Pattern for California." *Tax Digest*, 32(3) (March, 1954), 92-98.

0156. Brown, James S. "The Conjugal Family and the Extended Family Group." *American Sociological Review*, (n.d.), 297-306. This paper, a result of the famous 'Beech Creek' Study, examines the conjugal family and an extended kinship grouping called "the family group," and discusses some of the structural strains involved in the kin structure of this isolated area in the Kentucky Mountains.

0157. Brown, James S. *The Family Group in a Kentucky Mountain Farming Community.* Bulletin 588. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1952. This presents findings from the famous 'Beech Creek' Study in a Kentucky Mountain neighborhood on the family structure. Topics discussed include kinship terminology; extended kinship relations, including relationships of parents with their adult children and relationships among adult siblings; family groups, including the extent of kinship relationships, composition of family groups, changing family groups, emphasis on husband's kin, and functions of the family group, and class mobility. Concluding remarks center on the familism and neighborhood and community solidarity.

0158. Brown, James S. *The Farm Family in a Kentucky Mountain Neighborhood.* Bulletin 587. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1952. This presents data on the farm family in the Kentucky Mountains, results of the famous 'Beech Creek' Study. Topics discussed include a description of the neighborhood of residence, the physical setting of the family on the farm, daily life of the farm, seasonal activities, divisions of labor by sex and age, size and composition of households, the family cycle, husband-wife relationships, parent-child relationships, and the changing family.

0159. Brown, James S. Migration within, to, and from the Southern Appalachians, 1935-58: Extent, Direction and Social Effects. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1959.

0160. Brown, James S. "Social Class, Intermarriage, and Church Membership in a Kentucky Community." American Journal of Sociology, (n.d.), 232-242.
In a Kentucky Mountain community intermarriage was found to be concentrated in the highest and lowest social classes. Members of the highest class intermarried because they refused to associate with the lower class, which, in turn, intermarried because high class people refused to associate with them. Membership in Holiness groups was found almost entirely only among the lowest class, for whom the Holiness group met specific, unique needs, particularly the needs for feeling relief, of forgiveness, and of feeling a sense of importance and worth.

0161. Brown, James S., and Beers, Howard W. Rural Population Changes in Five Kentucky Mountain Districts, 1943 to 1946. Bulletin 532. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1949.
The authors present an analysis of farm population with emphasis on the comparison of the mountain subregions with other subregions of the State. Changes found: (1) a great outmigration early in World War II, (2) a return in the summer of 1946 exceeding the out-go, including civilians and veterans, and (3) a resulting 1946 population in rural-farm districts 20-30% less than in 1940.

0162. Brown, James S., and Hillery, George A., Jr. "The Great
* Migration 1940-1960." The Southern Appalachian Region: A Survey. Edited by Thomas R. Ford. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky Press, 1962. Pp. 54-78.
Findings are based on Census data and related publications, including special tabulations, on the Southern Appalachian region. The authors state, "Regardless of the extent to which the Appalachians appear to have been separated from the main stream of American social and cultural development, they have become increasingly integrated, possibly re-integrated, into that stream. In this process of integration, migration has played an important role." An increasing proportion of persons are moving from mining and subsistence agricultural areas

where the old social and cultural patterns have been especially persistent. The most apparent reason for Appalachian migration has been economic, but factors such as urbanization, family structure, education and mass communication, have also entered into the picture. Because of depopulation of mining and subsistence agricultural areas, such areas face serious consequences of adjustment: maintenance and support of local government services and school systems, reorganization of the total institutional structure, et cetera. Neither the subsistence farming nor mining areas can hope to hold the natural increase so that, the authors conclude, "a program of guided migration might well be a more realistic solution than to attempt to maintain an economic base...."

0163. Brown, James S., et al. "Kentucky Mountain Migration and the Stem Family: An American Variation on a Theme by Le Play." Rural Sociology, 28 (March, 1963), 48-69. Le Play's "stem-family" concept proved useful in an evaluation of the function of the kinship structure in an Eastern Kentucky neighborhood as it affected the process of migration and adjustment of individuals within the migration system. The 20-year study showed that members of the same family tended to migrate to the same places, where there are now extensive kin ties, and that migration destination tended to be social-class oriented. Members of the stem-family were found to facilitate and encourage outmigration and are "havens of safety" during crises. Further, the "branch-family" in destination areas provides a psychological "cushion" for the migrant during transition.

0164. Brown, Morgan C. "Selected Characteristics of Southern Rural Negroes Exchanged to a Southern Urban Center." Rural Sociology, 27 (March, 1962), 63-70. This is an exploratory study of selected characteristics of rural Negroes who entered Baton Rouge, Louisiana, during differential time sequences. Central premises underlying the study were that there are reciprocal influences between cities and hinterlands, that they are in functional interdependence, and that migration of Southern rural Negroes to nearby cities is an important factor in Southern urbanization. The sample for analysis consisted of 312 adult male Negro migrants who had entered Baton Rouge from beyond the county boundaries. Each had resided in the city for more than one year, presumably intended to reside in Baton Rouge permanently, had made one migratory move, and was married at the time of entry. A random sample of native Negro family heads served as a control group for the field survey.

0165. Brown, Phillips H., and Peterson, John M. "The Exodus from Arkansas." Arkansas Economist, 2 (Winter, 1960), 10-15.
Although Arkansas manufacturing industries had experienced substantial growth between 1947 and 1958, the State continues to lose population because its manufacturing industry is still too small to create enough jobs to absorb the large number of people being reared on and leaving Arkansas farms. The authors state that efforts to expand industrial job opportunities still represent the most promising avenue for eventually absorbing farm population surpluses and checking the rate of exodus from Arkansas.

0166. Browning, Harley, and Long, Larry H. Population Mobility: Focus on Texas. Population Series No. 2. Austin, Tex.: University of Texas at Austin, Bureau of Business Research, 1968.
Discussions center on interstate migration to and from Texas, 1870-1960; patterns of migration for short periods, 1930 to 1960; net migration and overall mobility for urban areas; socioeconomic characteristics of movers; the process of urbanization in Texas; and population decline in 71 counties.

0167. Brunner, Edmund deS. "Internal Migration in the United States, 1935-40." Rural Sociology, 13(1) (March, 1948), 9-22.
The author analyzes data on numbers and rates of migration, regional destination, and farm-nonfarm residence changes, by selected characteristics of migrants, using 1940 Census of Population data on migrants between 1935 and 1940. A short discussion of changes subsequent to 1940 based on later reports of the Census also are included.

0168. Brunner, Edmund deS. "Population Research." The Growth of
* a Science: A Half Century of Rural Sociological Research in the United States. New York: Harper Brothers, 1957. Pp. 42-63.
The author presents a digest of research studies in population, illustrating the types of research being done, subject matter covered, methods used, and results achieved. Findings emerging from practically all studies of migration and population mobility are the following: "(1) Females leave rural areas, especially farms, in disproportionately larger numbers and at an earlier age than males. (2) The bulk of the rural-urban migration begins at age 16 and is over by age 30. (3) While a majority of migrating youth in their first move settle near their parents' homes, the better-educated go farther.

(4) The greater the distance a migrant moves, the more likely it is that his destination is a large city. (5) The youth of tenant families are more mobile than those of owner families, but they move shorter distances. (6) Males, though less migratory than females, travel farther. (7) Nearby cities attract disproportionately large proportions of unskilled workers from rural America, more distant and larger cities a higher proportion of more capable and of professional workers. (8) Younger families are more mobile than older, operators of small farms more mobile than those with larger holdings. (9) Families with a number of organizational contacts in their community are less mobile than those with few. (10) Rates of migration tend to vary with urban economic conditions."

0169. Brunner, Edmund deS., and Hallenbeck, Wilbur. American Society: Urban and Rural Patterns. New York: Harper, 1955.

0170. Brunner, Edmund deS., et al. "Migration and Education." Teachers College Record, 49 (1947), 98-107. This article presents an analysis of migration data by educational status, measured by years of schooling completed. First, a summary of 1935-40 migration data is presented. About one-eighth of the population, or 16 million persons, had migrated since birth. The cities gained from the farm population; the villages, from the cities and farms. Cities over 100,000 lost professional workers. The youth group, ages 25-34 in 1940, was very mobile and was attracted to certain states. The states were ranked according to gain or loss by migration and by support of education per classroom unit. These had a positive correlation of +.51. Rural-farm college-educated persons are less likely to migrate than their rural nonfarm or urban counterparts. Urban migrants, regardless of education, are most likely to move to another city. This tendency was found to increase with education. Among both rural categories, the better educated moved to cities in higher proportions than to farms or villages. The distance of migration (in state, to a contiguous state, or to a non-contiguous state) was found to increase with the amount of education. This is especially true for migrants of urban origin. The general pattern of migration shows the majority of migrants to urban areas to have four years of high school, the majority to rural areas to have seven to eight years of grade school.

0171. Bryant, Ellen S., and Leung, Kit Mui. Mississippi Farm Trends 1950-1964. Bulletin 754. State College, Miss.: Mississippi State University, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1967.

The authors found that since 1950, movement out of farming in Mississippi has proceeded rapidly. The number of farm operators has been reduced by more than 55% between 1950 and 1964 (from 250,000 to 109,000). Outmovement has occurred among both owners and tenants, with the tenant losses much more severe. The ratio of tenant to owner loss was six-to-one between 1954 and 1959, and since then has been at a two-to-one ratio. Eighty percent of the farm tenant loss has been nonwhite. Heaviest farmer losses have been in the nonwhite group, the composition of farmers changing from 50% white in 1950 to about 66% in 1964. Concurrent with the peak losses of farm tenants and owners there was an increase in the number of part-time farmers, farm laborers, and migratory farm workers. While the number of farmers and the land in farming have decreased, the remaining farm units are increasing in size and becoming more mechanized. Farm living is becoming urbanized in terms of using appliances and having higher levels of education and income. All of these patterns are expected to continue. Roads, radios, cars, schools, and television, along with the growing industrial economy, are urbanizing the aspirations of Mississippi's farm youth.

0172. Bryant, Ellen S., and Wilber, George S. Net Migration in
* Mississippi 1950-1960. Bulletin 632. State College, Miss.: Mississippi State University, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1961.

The authors state that "A disproportionately large segment of dependent age persons resulted from the combined factors of heavy out-movement of persons in their productive years, in-movement of retirement age persons, and the high rate of natural increase. Also significant has been the increase in ratio of white to nonwhite citizens....The streamlining of farming enterprises plus the expanding of industries in the cities have spurred thousands of Mississippi's surplus rural youth to seek new homes and new occupations in urban areas. Many of the migrating white persons found new residences in Mississippi's own growing cities, but nearly all the nonwhite migrants moved to regions outside the state." If investment and production losses are added together, Mississippi's migration loss during the 1950's was found to have cost the state an average of $700 million a year ....Industrial expansion in the state has thus far not kept pace with the natural increase in inhabitants."

0173. Buck, Roy C. "Rural Youth Leave Home...There is a Vacant Chair." Science for the Farmer (New Series), 1(3) (Winter, 1954), 4-5.

The author found that slightly more than one-quarter of the 3,000 rural Pennsylvania high school sophomores interviewed in 1947 had become urban residents by 1951. He discusses mobility, occupation, and income of these farm and rural-nonfarm migrants.

0174. Buck, Roy C., and Brown, Claude Harold. "The Implications
* of Rural Youth Migration and Occupational Mobility for Agriculture." Journal of Farm Economics, 41 (December, 1959), 1155-1168.
The authors used data obtained from 1,042 male sophomores from 74 rural Pennsylvania high schools who provided information during a ten-year period, 1947-57. The authors state that, "The problem was to discover the extent to which place of residence in childhood and early youth was a significant factor contributing to differentiating processes of spatial and occupational mobility as well as certain allied attributes." I.Q. scores and California Test of Personality were used. The evidence redefined the hypothesis of marked differentiation between the socioeconomic futures of farm-reared and rural nonfarm-reared young adults. The factor of residence had varying importance, depending upon the other factors being investigated and the time of investigation during the 10-year period.

0175. Bunting, Robert L. "Labor Mobility: Sex, Race and Age." The Review of Economics and Statistics, 42 (May, 1960), 229-231.

0176. Bunting, Robert L. " A Test of the Theory of Geographic Mobility." Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 15 (October, 1961), 75-82.
This article is concerned with rural-urban and interregional worker movements with respect to appropriate differences in money wages. The results tend to support the hypothesis that the flows of workers in movement are typically from areas of low net advantage to areas of high net advantage, as measured by income differentials; i.e., data reveal systematic movement from rural to urban areas and from South to North.

0177. Bunting, Robert L., et al. "Labor Mobility in Three Southern States." Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 14 (February, 1961), 432-445.

0178. Burch, Thomas K. "Some Demographic Determinants of Average Household Size: An Analytic Approach." Demography, 7 (1970), 61-69.

0179. Burchinal, Lee G. "Do Family Moves Harm Children?" Iowa Farm Science, 17(9) (1963), 11-12.

0180. Burchinal, Lee G. "How Do Farm Families Adjust to City Life?" Iowa Farm Science, 17 (1963).

0181. Burchinal, Lee G. (ed.) Rural Youth in Crisis: Facts, Myths and Social Change. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.
This is a collection of papers given at the "Conference on Problems of Rural Youth in a Changing Environment," September, 1963, concerned with the problems of the disadvantaged (socially, economically, and educationally) rural youth considered unprepared for urban living.

0182. Burchinal, Lee G. "Who's Going to Farm?" Iowa Farm Science, 14 (April, 1960), 12-15.
* Data for this article were based on a study of 103 high school farm boys in the tenth and twelfth grades in Iowa. Results show that 68% of the fathers "of the boys who planned to farm (farm oriented) were farm owner-operators." Only 30% of plan-nonfarm job (nonfarm oriented) boys and of the uncertain boys lived on owner-operated farms. Also, the boys who planned to farm much more frequently reported that a farm was or would be available to them. In all three groups, "boys more often reported their mothers than their fathers as having expressed some opinion about their sons' occupational plans. Boys who had reached a definite decision about their future occupations most often reported discussions with both fathers and mothers about their occupational plans. Mothers more frequently than fathers put emphasis on encouraging their sons to continue education." The boys who planned to farm had lower grades, rated freedom on the job as the most important factor, and rated farming over nonfarm work. They less often consulted teachers or counselors about their occupational plans. They were more satisfied with their present job information and less often had plans for education beyond high school.

0183. Burchinal, Lee G., and Bauder, Ward W. "Adjustments to the New Institutional Environment." Paper presented at the Family Mobility in Our Dynamic Society Conference, Iowa City, Iowa, October, 1963. Iowa City: Iowa State University, Center for Agricultural and Economic Development, 1963.
The authors discuss types of moves--voluntary and involuntary--and conclude that motivations for moving greatly influence adjustment. Analysis of differences between adjustment of rural-reared urban residents and others requires control for status and length of time in the urban center.

0184. Burchinal, Lee G., and Bauder, Ward W. "Educational Values of Farm Migrant Families." Iowa Farm Science, 19 (November-December, 1964), 6-8.
This study focused on the educational aspirations of

parents for soms still at home and the educational attainment levels of sons who had left home, and suggests that the educational and occupational levels of farm migrants are passed on to their children.

0185. Burchinal, Lee G., and Jacobsen, P. E. Migration and Adjustment of Farm and Nonfarm Families and Adolescents in Cedar Rapids, Iowa. Research Bulletin 516. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University, Agricultural and Home Economics Experiment Station, 1963.
Comparisons were made among farm migrants, urban migrants and natives in Cedar Rapids for the purpose of studying relationships between maternal employment and developmental characteristics of children. Differences observed were related to status differences among the three migration types.

0186. Burchinal, Lee G., Haller, A. O., and Taves, M. J. Career Choices of Rural Youth in a Changing Society. Bulletin 458. St. Paul, Minn.: Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station, 1962.

0187. Burford, Roger L. "An Index of Distance as Related to Internal Migration." Southern Economic Journal, 29 (October, 1962), 77-81.

0188. Burgess, Ernest W., and Locke, Harvey J. The Family. New York: American Book Co., 1953.

0189. Burma, John H. Spanish Speaking Groups in the United States. Durham, N. C.: Duke University Press, 1954.

0190. Busca, M. "The Rural Exodus." Riso, 5 (September, 1956), 3-4.

0191. Butcher, Walter. "Productivity, Technology, and Employment in Agriculture." Automation and Economic Progress. Edited by Howard R. Bowen and Garth L. Mangum. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966. Pp. 114-127.
The author says that technological advances have led to a decrease in the number of jobs in the farm industry in two ways: 1) by increasing the output and efficiency per producing unit, making it possible to meet growing demands without putting more resources into agriculture; and 2) by producing labor-saving innovations which decreased the labor requirements for farm work and raised the efficiency with which agricultural operations are performed. The movement of workers out of agriculture has been rapid, but not rapid enough to bring the agricultural labor force into balance with labor needs under evolving technologies. Among the factors hindering movements from agricultural to nonagricultural em-

ployment are the following: 1) the isolation of agriculture and the scarcity of other industries in many rural farming areas; 2) the lack of transferability of farm skills to nonfarm jobs; and 3) comparative lack of education. In 1950 nearly 60% of farm-nonfarm migrants were under 25 years of age, and these young people show a large concentration in the lower-income, semi-skilled, and unskilled positions. Based on projections of future trends, it is found that the element most essential to continuous flow of labor from agriculture is a high rate of employment in the nonfarm economy.

0192. Butler, Edgar W., et al. "Demographic and Social Psychological Factors in Residential Mobility." Sociology and Social Research, 48 (January, 1964), 139-154.

0193. Butler, Edgar W., et al. Moving Behavior and Residential Choice: A National Survey. Chapel Hill, N. C.: University of North Carolina, Institute for Research in Social Science, Center for Regional and Urban Studies, 1968.
Included in this study are (1) identification of factors related to the mobility of metropolitan households; (2) identification of factors involved in choice of neighborhood and dwelling; and (3) mathematical models developed for use in determining residential mobility and residential choice.

0194. Butterfield, Roy L. "On the American Migrations." New York History, 38 (October, 1957), 368-386.

0195. California, Commonwealth Club of. The Population of California. San Francisco: Parker Printing Co., 1946.
This publication presents an analysis of population growth and composition, stressing causes, measurement, sources, and effects of migration from 1850 to 1944. It includes analysis of the 1935-40 migration data by farm and nonfarm residence.

0196. Campbell, K. O. "Rural Population Movements in Relation to Economic Development." Proceedings of the Tenth International Conference of Agriculture Economists. London: Oxford University Press, 1960.

0197. Canada, Saskatchewan. Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life. Movement of Farm People. Rural Life Report No. 7. Regina: Royal Commission on Agriculture and Rural Life, 1956.

0198. Carmichael, Stokely, Hamilton, Charles, Coles,Robert, M. D.; and Kozol, Jonathan. "Black Ghettos: The American Nightmare." The Atlantic, October, 1967, pp. 97-110.
The article "Dynamite" by Carmichael and Hamilton presents

an historical account of the Negro migration to the North, using Chicago as an example of how the lot of the Negro has remained basically the same. Statistics are given on the poor quality of housing and education which is available to the Negro. In the other two articles, "Maybe God Will Come and Clean Up," by Coles, and "Where Ghetto Schools Fail," by Kozol, the housing and education problems are given more graphic focus through the recounting of personal experiences of white men who have come in close contact with the Negro in his ghetto environment. The squalor of living conditions combined with little or no hope of escape, the intensity of summer heat, and callous attitudes of representatives of the whites toward Negro problems are cited by Dr. Cole as factors which spark riots. Mr. Kozol describes how his reading of a Langston Hughes poem to his Boston junior high and grade school students led to his being fired. It illustrates both the conscious and unconscious racial prejudice which dominate school officials of that city and which deprive the Negro child not only of an adequate basic education, but also of a sense of dignity.

0199. Chauhan, D. S. "Rural Migration and Regional Balance." *Agra University Journal of Research*, 5 (January, 1957), I-II and 5 (July, 1957), 169-184.

0200. Chauhan, D. S. "Social Costs of Migration." *Journal of Social Sciences*, 1 (July, 1958), 29-51.

0201. Chiswick, B. R. "The Average Level of Schooling and the Intra-Regional Inequality of Income: A Clarification." *American Economic Review*, 58(3) (June, 1968).

0202. Choldin, Harvey M., and Trout, Grafton D., Jr. *Mexican-Americans in Transition: Migration and Employment in Michigan Cities.* East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State University, Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station, 1969.

0203. Christensen, David E. "Population Changes." Research Paper No. 43. In series, *Rural Occupance in Transition: Lee and Sumter Counties, Georgia.* Chicago: University of Chicago, Department of Geography, 1956.
The author observes that vacant or dismantled former tenant houses are evidence of the most significant change which has taken place in the population of Lee and Sumter Counties: a steady reduction in the number of Negroes living in the rural areas. The number of rural whites was found also to have decreased, but more recently and at a lesser rate.

0204. Christensen, David E. "Rural Occupance in Transition, Sumter and Lee Counties, Georgia." Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1956.

0205. Cisin, Ira H. "The Mountain Migrant: The Problem Centered Workshop at Berea." *Journal of Human Relations*, 9(1) (Autumn, 1960), 67.

0206. Clark, Margaret. *Health in the Mexican-American Culture: A Community Study.* Berkeley: University of California Press, 1959.

0207. Clawson, Marion. "Factors and Forces Affecting the Optimum Future Rural Settlement Pattern in the United States." *Economic Geography*, 42(4) (October, 1966).

0208. Clawson, Marion. *Policy Directions for U. S. Agriculture.* Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1968.
This book analyzes American agriculture. Subjects considered include aspirations and noneconomic needs of farm people, farm labor, rural living conditions, migration of farm people, rural institutions and services, rural towns, the spatial organization of agriculture, and its capital structure. The book is divided into four main parts. Part I examines the conditions of rural life--how poorly most rural people live, how they react to these conditions, what is happening to small towns and the pattern of agricultural settlement, and the land-use situation. Data confirm the migration of farm people to urban areas and the low level of entry into agriculture. It is stated that it is unlikely that migration will be accelerated in the absence of major programs to assist farmers in readjustment, and we may easily get down to two million farms or less by 1980 and one million or less by the year 2,000. Part II deals with numbers of farms, farm labor, demand and supply, foreign trade, farm income, and use of capital. It is stated that the total amount of labor used in agricultural production has declined greatly in recent years. The percentage of farm wage workers who are nonwhite is more than double their percentage in the total population. There is an excess of labor in farming relative to the demand and supply of labor in agriculture. Part III contains an examination of some of the possibilities for American agriculture in the year 2,000, based on an analysis of present trends. Part IV consists of a description of the major forces for and against change.

0209. Cleland, Courtney B. *Changes in Rural Population on the Plains.* Social Science Report No. 3. Fargo, N.D.: North Dakota State University, Institute for Regional Studies, 1957.

0210. Coe, Paul. "Nonwhite Population Increases in Metropolitan
* Areas." *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 50(270) (June, 1955), 283-308.
This paper relies most heavily on Census data, and its analysis is devoted primarily to nonwhite population changes in standard metropolitan areas from 1940 to 1950. Findings include the following: (1) The nonwhite popula-

tion in the entire nation had begun to increase at a faster rate than the white. (2) The nonwhite population was being distributed generally. (3) Nonwhites living in SMSA's increased over twice as fast as did the white population from 1940 to 1950. (4) In-migration accounted for an estimated almost two-thirds of the nonwhite population increase in SMSA's and in their central cities, and for almost half of their increase in the SMSA suburbs. (5) In their movement to SMSA's, nonwhites have gravitated very sharply to the central parts of the cities. (6) Regional nonwhite increases were numerically largest in the North Central SMSA's and relatively largest in the SMSA's of the West. (7) There were great concentrations of nonwhites in a few SMSA's (half of all nonwhites are in the 168 SMSA's but one-fourth of all nonwhites in the nation live in 10 SMSA's). (8) Nonwhites did not increase equally in all SMSA's: in 9, they decreased in number; in 31, they doubled; and in 3, they tripled. White population doubled in only one SMSA. (9) Nonwhites were not present to the same degree in all SMSA's. (10) The reasons for the nonwhite population surge to SMSA's cannot be quantified, but include such considerations as better employment opportunities, the search for greater freedom from segregation, and the appeal of urban life.

0211. Coe, Paul. "The Nonwhite Population Surge to Our Cities." Land Economics, 35 (August, 1959), 195-210.
This paper is mainly a discussion of the effects of the nonwhite population "surge" on SMSA's in regard to housing, taxation, income, wealth, et cetera. Some information on amount of increase in SMSA's is included but few migration data are given.

0212. Colberg, Marshall R. "Human Capital as a Southern Resource." Southern Economic Journal, 29 (January, 1963), 157-166.

0213. Coleman, A. Lee, Pryor, Albert C., Jr., and Christiansen,
* John R. The Negro Population of Kentucky at Mid Century. Bulletin 643. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1956.
The authors present results of a study of the Negro population in Kentucky, using 1950 Census data and related information. Relatively high outmigration was found to be a major factor in accounting for the decreasing population of Negroes in Kentucky's total population. A definite migration pattern could be seen. Kentucky-born Negroes went primarily to the four states directly North (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan), and the majority of the inmigrant Negroes came from the four states directly South of Kentucky (Tennessee, Alabama, Georgia, and Mississippi). Kentucky appeared to be a "way point," in that

it received Negroes from the areas of dense Negro population to the South and sent its own native Negroes on to the states further North.

0214. Coleman, J. S. Equality of Educational Opportunity. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1966.

0215. Coller, Richard Walter. "Geographic Mobility of Selected
* Rural Minnesota Male High School Graduates." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1959.
Data for 581 young adults from five Minnesota rural high schools for the years, 1948, 1950, 1952, and 1956 were obtained for use in an attempt to test the validity of a social explanation of migration which viewed migratory patterns as adaptations to social pressures for success. The author states that, "All the findings related to three aspects of geographic mobility--range, destination, and frequency of migration. Northeastern migrants tended toward either short or long-distance moves, whereas the Southwesterners clustered at intermediate locations. Variables most significantly associated with range were occupational aspiration, military experience, and career advancement. Early residence and reasons for migrating showed the least association. Destinations of Northeastern migrants were most often large or small communities...." Migrants from the Southwest went to medium-sized centers.

0216. Conference on Economic Progress. Full Prosperity for Agriculture: Goals for Farm Policy. Washington, D. C.: Conference on Economic Progress, 1955.

0217. Conway, James F. "Migrants in the Promised Land." America, 115(11) (September, 1966), 253-255.
When Utah farmers were undersold, they turned to specialty crops, and almost all became dependent on the cheap labor of Texas Mexicans. The author states that the small farmers can not afford good wages, and there is no minimum wage. Social Security is not always paid. Crew leaders often fail to take out disability and accident insurance policies. Since the migrants are not residents, they do not qualify for permanent state welfare. They can be given "emergency assistance." The Mormons take care of their own so they do not work with community organizations. The Catholic church does what it can for migrants by subsidizing parishes which sponsor migrant programs. The parish structure does not fit the needs of the migrant who is always on the move, and the poverty program does little for the migrant.

0218. Copperman, M. "Residential Mobility of a Group of Public Welfare Clients." *Social Casework*, 45 (July, 1964), 407-412.

0219. * Cowgill, Donald O. "Value Assumptions in Recent Migration Research." *Sociological Quarterly*, 2 (October, 1961). This presents the author's review of some 35 articles and monographs on migration listed in *Sociological Abstracts* in recent years and his opinions on the effects of value judgements on migration research. The author states that earlier sociological writings on migration and mobility tended to stress the disorganizing aspects. This was true of the research relating to immigration from abroad, and it tended also to be true of the ecological studies of the 1920's and 1930's. This negative value orientation, it is said, has tended to also be true of the ecological studies of the 1920's and 1930's. This negative value orientation, it is said, has tended to disappear in recent years, being replaced by more neutral attitudes or even positive ones, in some cases.

0220. Cowhig, James D. *Urban and Rural Levels of Living in 1960.* Agricultural Economics Report No. 79. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.

0221. Cowie, W. J. G., and Giles, A. K. "An Inquiry into Reasons for the 'Drift from the Lane'." *Selected Papers on Agricultural Economics*, 5 (December, 1957), 71-113.

0222. Crane, Robert I. "Urbanism in India." *American Journal of Sociology*, 60 (March, 1955), 463-470.

0223. Crawford, Charles O. "Family Attachment, Family Support for Migration, and Migration Plans for Young People." *Rural Sociology*, 31 (1966), 293-300. The study sample consisted of 790 seniors from a low-income and high agricultural county in northern New York State. Three forms of social psychological support and one form of economic support were utilized in testing the hypothesis. A four-item index was developed as an operational measure of attachment. The hypothesis was that high school seniors (1) who had high attachment to the family of orientation and receive support from this system to migrate, and (2) those with low attachment to this system are more likely to plan to migrate than (3) those who have high attachment but receive no support. Since in all four of the more important tests made it was found that the high attachment-support group was more likely to plan migration than the high attachment-no support groups, and since in three of these four tests the obtained difference was significant, there appears to be considerable justification, says the author, for the assertion that support from the family of orientation to migrate can overcome the inhibiting effects of attachment to this system.

0224. Crawford, Charles O. Family Factors in Migration Plans of Youth: High School Seniors in St. Lawrence County, New York. Bulletin No. 65. Ithaca: New York State University, Cornell Agricultural Experiment Station, 1964. This was a study of the performance of various facilitating functions of the family of orientation and other relatives in the migration planning of high school seniors. Data came from 790 public high school seniors in a relatively low income county in northern New York State in 1962. Findings include: (1)"...when family members from family of orientation and/or other relatives performed the social-psychological support, economic support and communication-outpost functions, planning by youth to migrate was significantly more likely than when no family member performed these functions. Performance of these functions was found to be especially important for males and for respondents with one or no siblings. (2) One function, economic support, was found to be unimportant for rural seniors. (3) Not much confirmation was given to the proposition that the family of orientation is more important than other relatives in effecting plans to migrate. (4) ...a large amount of credence was given to the proposition that youth with high attachment to the family of orientation and with support from this system to migrate (or those with low attachment) are more inclined to plan to migrate than those with high attachment and no support for migration."

0225. Crowe, M. J. "The Occupational Adaptation of a Selected Group of Eastern Kentuckians in Southern Ohio." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kentucky, 1964.

0226. Crowley, Ronald. "An Empirical Investigation of Some Local Public Costs of In-Migration to Cities." Journal of Human Resources, 1(1) (Winter, 1970), 11-23. The net burden of inmigrants on the population of a city is calculated in this article by multiplying the income distribution of inmigrants by an income-based per capita distribution of revenues and expenditures. A measure of the burden which compensates for different revenue-expenditure patterns among cities is developed. These statistics are used for examining the costs imposed by inmigration on 94 large U. S. cities. Among the cities studied, 1955-1960 inmigrants imposed in 1960 a median net burden per city of 2.5 million: the median net burden per migrant was $72, and that per city resident,

$8. Considerable regional dispersion in the size of the relative burden was noted. The conclusion of the study is that significant costs of inmigration do exist.

0227. Crowley, Ronald. "The Nature and Social Cost of In-Migration to Cities in the United States, 1955-1960." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Duke University, 1968.

0228. Cunningham, Earl Harold. "Religious Concerns of Southern Appalachian Migrants in a North Central City." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston University, 1962. Analysis of the data on 33 Southern Appalachian adult migrants in Cleveland, Ohio, revealed that the migrants were not disappointed in the city, that ethnically more strict migrants came from lower social status groups, and that they actively and constructively dealt with their economic and psychological stress situations. These migrants were found not to be lonely in the city but had friends and relatives who helped them to get settled. There was some weakening in the migrants' religious life, but those who prayed more frequently appeared to be less distressed and passive to their conditions.

0229. Dade, Emil B. Migration of Kansas Population, 1930-1945. Industrial Research Series No. 6. Lawrence, Kan.: University of Kansas, n.d.
The author analyzes some of the characteristics of outmigration and of population shifts within the state, and presents changes in migration by age and sex for the total, urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm populations separately.

0230. Dahlke, H. Otto. "Wartime Rural Migration, Western Specialty Crop Areas." Studies of the State College of Washington, 14(2) (June, 1946), 151-157.
Adjustments of rural migrants within and near war-industry centers and of rural-farm population outside these centers are discussed. Rural-farm migrants to war-production centers were found to be primarily small marginal farmers, low-income families, and tenants.

0231. Dahlke, H. Otto, and Stonecipher, Harvey V. "A Wartime Back-to-Land Movement of Old Age Groups." Rural Sociology, 11(2) (June, 1946), 148-152.
The authors discuss results of a study of four areas in Butte County, California, 1935-1945, showing development of retirement communities in rural areas. It was found that some of the newcomers expected to make a living farming, while others were interested in farming part-time or in just living in a rural environment.

0232. Danley, Robert A., and Ramsey, Charles E. Standardization and Application of a Level-of-Living Scale for Farm and

Nonfarm Families. Bulletin 362. Ithaca: New York State University, Cornell Agricultural Experiment Station, 1959.

0233. David, Martin, and Leuthold, Jane. "Formulas for Income Maintenance: Their Distributional Impact." *National Tax Journal*, 21 (March, 1968), 70-93.
The authors used a cross-section sample designed by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan to simulate the income results of such plans as negative taxation, guaranteed minimum income, family allowances, public assistance, social insurance, and other transfer payments.

0234. Davies, Vernon. *Farm Population Trends in Washington.* Bulletin 507. Pullman, Wash.: Washington Agricultural Experiment Station, 1949.
A section on migration of farm people into the state shows the residence in 1935 of rural-farm inmigrants, 1935-40, by regions and selected states. Forty-one percent of the inmigrants who lived on farms in other states in 1935 were found to be living on Washington farms in 1940.

0235. Davis, Dan R. "Who Wants to Keep 'Em Down on the Farm?" *Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, 17(3) (December, 1946), 262-267.
The author states that many rural schools are "feeble in their attempts to prepare youth for a livelihood in either agriculture or village life; and they do not prepare youth for work in cities, in industry and commerce." Among recommendations, the author advocates the adoption of a national population policy, which should include "designs to aid in eliminating the extreme differences in fertility rates between regions, between rural and urban population, and between classes."

0236. Davis, Ethelyn Clara. "Little Mexico: A Study of Horizontal and Vertical Mobility." Unpublished master's dissertation, Southern Methodist University, 1936.
The purpose of the study on which this thesis was based was to analyze the trends of mobility among the Mexican population of Dallas. Both horizontal and vertical mobility are thoroughly examined.

0237. Davis, Jack. "Texas Population Shifts from Rural to Urban." *Texas A&M College Agriculturist*, 10(4) (March, 1952), 13, 24.

0238. Davis, John P. (ed.) *The American Negro Reference Book.* Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966.

0239. Davis, Kingsley. "Internal Migration and Urbanization in Relation to Economic Development." *World Population Conference Proceedings, 1954.* Vol. II. New York: United Nations, 1955. Pp. 783-801.

The author states that internal movement increases with economic development. Movement of agriculturalists to new areas increases in early stages. Big internal movement in the form of rural-urban movement comes after considerable industrialization. Eventually, rural-urban movement wanes and is inter-urban in character.

0240. Davis, Kingsley. "Some Demographic Aspects of Poverty in the United States." Poverty in America. Edited by Margaret S. Gordon. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1965. Pp. 299-320.

0241. Davis, Kingsley, et al. International Population and Urban Research Bibliography. Berkeley: University of California, Institute of International Studies, n.d.

0242. Day, Katherine H., and Landis, Paul H. "Education and Distance of Migration of Youth." Elementary School Journal, (December, 1945), 200-208.

0243. Day, R. H. "The Economics of Technological Change and the Demise of the Sharecropper." American Economic Review, (June, 1968), 427-449.

0244. Dayal, P. "Population Growth and Rural-Urban Migration in India." National Geographical Journal of India, 5 (December, 1959), 179-185.

0245. De Berry, Linda L., and Edgel, Ralph L. Income and Employment in New Mexico 1965-1966. Albuquerque, N. M.: University of New Mexico, Bureau of Business Research, 1968.

0246. Denison, E. F. The Sources of Economic Growth in the United States and the Alternatives Before Us. New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1962.

0247. Denoon, David, and Meyer, John R. "Technological Changes, Migration Patterns and Some Issues of Public Policy." Discussion Paper No. 9. Program on Regional and Urban Economics. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, 1967.

0248. Dentler, Robert A. (ed.) Major American Social Problems. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1967.

0249. Derbyshire, Robert L. "Adaptation of Adolescent Mexican Americans to United States Society." Behavior in Modern Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 275-289.
The study sample consisted of 89 males and females of Mexican American background in a low-income area of Los Angeles. Migrants were determined on the basis of whether the individual had moved to Los Angeles during his lifetime or whether his mother or father had moved there from Mexico, while nonmigrants and their parents were born and

reared in the U. S. The major conclusion was that nonmigrants may have found it necessary to 'overidentify' with traditional Mexican role models to counteract the "cultural stripping" process of American society. Migrants were found to be more positively oriented than nonmigrants. Thus, "...adaptive behavior learned at the outset of migration becomes maladaptive during succeeding steps in the migration process."

0250. "Dialogue: Rural Poverty--Flight or Fight?" New Generation, 50(3) (Summer, 1968), 21-32.
This article examines migration from rural areas. The net rural-urban movement is between 500,000 and 600,000 people a year, mostly young adults between 17 and 30. Though Negro youths constitute one-eighth of rural youth, they contribute 20-25% of the outmigration. How much migration represents forced mobility is discussed. Forced mobility affects a higher proportion of rural Negroes than rural whites. The causes are said to be economic. Political and social factors work against Negroes in cities as well. The basic issue must be the right of choice as to where to live. It is stated that we need to make it possible for youths to stay, or if they leave to get an education to encourage them to return, so that they can give needed leadership. Redevelopment of rural areas must be considered in terms of what we want these areas to be like in the next 100 years. Better services are needed. The guaranteed annual income is examined for its effect on rural poverty; it would relieve the blacks of the burden of dealing with the local welfare agencies. Co-ops enable people to stay in rural areas. While ones such as the Southwest Alabama Farmer's Cooperative Association have been successful, most participants doubt whether they could provide a solution to the problems of rural youths. The question of unionization in industries moving to the rural areas of the South is considered; perhaps people should organize for capital ownership as well as for jobs. Finally, the role of organization as a tactic is considered.

0251. Diehl, William D. "Farm-Non-Farm Migration in the South-East: A Costs Returns Analysis." Journal of Farm Economics, 48 (February, 1966), 1-11.

0252. Dillingham, Harry C., and Sly, David F. "The Mechanical Cotton-Picker, Negro Migration, and the Integration Movement." Human Organization, 25(4) (Winter, 1966), 344-351.
The thesis is that "it is precisely technological innovations in agriculture which are a major source of the Negro's poor economic condition." "...the economies of

tractor use and mechanical pickers...sounded the death knell of the Negro hand-laborer." Data concerning adoption of the cotton-pickers are from 17 Arkansas counties, 15 of which have large Negro tenant populations. Data indicate that "the hypothesis that mechanization in the 1950's was caused by emigration is scarcely tenable." "Some evidence suggests that most of these emigrants went to urban areas in the South. These Southern urban places, in turn, have been losing large number of emigrants to urban places in the North. Our deduction is that this latter stream of emigrants was propelled Northwards by the increased competition for available urban jobs in the South, imposed by the rural migrants entering these Southern urban places. We deduce that this Northward stream was propelled, rather than attracted, since evidence is lacking for any substantial expansion of job opportunities for Negroes in the Urban North."

0253. Doerflinger, Jon A. "Patterns of Internal Migration Related to Institutional and Age-Sex Structures of the U. S." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1962.

0254. Doerflinger, Jon A., and Marshall, Douglass G. The Story of Price County, Wisconsin: Population Research in a Rural Development County. Research Bulletin 220. Madison, Wisc.: Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station, 1960.
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The study on which this bulletin is based was an attempt to discover the causes and consequences of population change in an area of high out-migration, and to provide factual information to facilitate the Rural Development Program. The population was found to have a high proportion of older people and a low one of working-age persons when compared to the state as a whole. Migration from Price County has been age-sex selective. Young people leave the county and the older persons remain giving a high dependence ratio in the population. Lower population density also raises costs of services.

0255. Douglas, Helen Walker. "The Conflict of Cultures in First Generation Mexicans in Santa Ana, California." Unpublished master's dissertation, University of Southern California, 1928.

0256. Drake, St. Clare, and Cayton, Horace R. Black Metropolis: A Study of Negro Life in a Northern City. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1945.

0257. Ducoff, Louis J. "Migratory Farm Workers: A Problem in Migration Analysis." Rural Sociology, 16(3) (September, 1951), 217-224.
Information is presented on the number, composition,

marital status, and number of children under 18 of migratory farm workers in the United States in 1950. Difficulties in defining and enumerating such workers are discussed. Attention is drawn to conceptual differences between migration resulting in population redistribution and repetitive migration for seasonal employment.

0258. Ducoff, Louis J. "Trends and Characteristics of Farm Population in Low-Income Farming Areas." Journal of Farm Economics, 37(5) (December, 1955), 1399-1407. The author shows trends that farm population decline proceeded at a faster rate from low-income areas than from the rest of the farm population. Within low-income areas, rates of outmigration were higher as seriousness of income problem increased.

0259. Duncan, J. S. "The Land for the People: Land Settlement and Rural Population Movements, 1886-1906." Land and Livelihood: Geographical Essays in Honour of George Jobberns. Edited by Murray McCaskill. Christchurch, New Zealand: New Zealand Geographical Society, 1962. Pp. 170-190.

0260. Duncan, Otis Dudley. "Occupation Trends and Patterns of Net Mobility in the United States." Demography, 3(1) (1966), 1-18.

0261. Duncan, Otis Dudley. Oklahoma's Farm Population: Some Facts and Figures. Bulletin B-379. Stillwater, Okla.: Oklahoma Agricultural Experiment Station, 1952.

0262. Duncan, Otis Dudley, and Duncan, Beverly. Chicago's Negro Population: Report of the Chicago Community Inventory, 1956. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1956.

0263. Duncan, Otis Dudley, and Duncan, Beverly. The Negro Population of Chicago: A Study of Residential Succession. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957.

0264. Duncan, Otis Dudley, and Duncan, Beverly. "Residential Distribution and Occupational Stratification." American Journal of Sociology, 60 (1955), 493-503.

0265. Duncan, Otis Dudley, and Reiss, Albert J., Jr. Social Characteristics of Urban and Rural Communities, 1950. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956.

0266. Duncan, Otis Durant. "Population Redistribution and Economic Growth." Review of Economic Development and Cultural Change, 7 (October, 1958), 90-94.

0267. Duncan, Otis Durant. "The Theory and Consequences of Mobility of Farm Population." Population Theory and Policy. Edited by Joseph J. Spengler and Otis Dudley Duncan. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1956. Pp. 417-434.
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The author tries to integrate a large number of empirical studies and statistical information from official government bureaus on migration with a four-fold purpose: the causes of human migration; the direct effects of migration on farm population; size and specific groups involved in this migration; and consequences of migration. The conditions for migration are classified under the following causes: economic and technological, social, personal, natural and miscellaneous. Types of movements based on distance moved and the volume of these movements are discussed. Migration is age and sex selective. Unmarried persons are more mobile than married ones, partly because of the greater expense of moving families than single individuals. Cities seem to attract the extremes of population in physical traits, social ranking and intelligence.

0268. Durgin, O. B. Population of New Hampshire: Effects of Migration on the Small New Hampshire Town. Bulletin 437. n.p.: New Hampshire Agricultural Experiment Station, 1957.
* This bulletin is based on a study of 20 New Hampshire towns using Census data. The authors conclude, "(1) Population characteristics have become more alike during the period 1930-1950. (2) Census residence categories are of relatively little value in the analysis of the small northern New England town. (3) There are some differences in agricultural adjustments between farms in towns losing population and those in towns gaining populations....(4) There appears to be some general difference in the economic orientations of the decreasing and increasing towns....(5) In small towns in areas of long and stable settlement, differences in economic orientation and adjustment do not create difference in population characteristics."

0269. Dyck, D., and Lawrence, F. "Relocation Adjustments of Farm Families." The Economic Analyst, 30 (February, 1960), 3-11.

0270. Dynes, Russell R. Consequences of Population Mobility for School and Community Change. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1956.
* Data were from a sample of 350 adults in Columbus, Ohio. Answers were sought to the following questions: 1) Do individuals reared in rural areas hold sectarian attitudes and beliefs after they move to a metropolitan area? 2) Is the sectarian a recent arrival to the city and therefore susceptible to "cultural shock?" 3) Does the sectarian change occupation and residence more often than others? "The general proposition that sectarianism functions as a cushion for the rural migrant in his adaptation to a hostile urban environment seems to have

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little validity....While sectarianism may have functioned at one time as an accomodative device for rural migrants, the narrowing differentials between rural and urban areas may have modified this....Urbanization, mass communication, and modern transportation have minimized the differences....The sect cushions the 'culture shock' of the rural migrant if he is from a lower ocioeconomic level. ...The significance of sectarianism lies in its association with lower socioeconomic status."

0271. Dynes, Russell R. "Rurality, Migration, and Sectarianism." Rural Sociology, 21 (March, 1956), 25-28.

0272. Eames, E. "Some Aspects of Urban Migration from a Village in North Central India." Eastern Anthropology, 8 (September-November, 1954), 13-26.

0273. Easterlin, R. A. "Economic-Demographic Interactions and Long Swings in Economic Growth." American Economic Review, (December, 1966), 1063-1104.

0274. Educational Projects, Inc. Migrant Opportunities. Washington, D. C.: Educational Projects, Inc., 1967.
This publication lists Office of Economic Opportunity projects to help migrant and seasonal farm workers in 35 states. The programs dealt with include: adult basic education and literacy, adult vocational education, early childhood (pre-school) education, youth enrichment and remedial education, tutorial service, pre-vocational education, day care of children, self-help housing, rest stop facilities, field and camp sanitation, health services, libraries, planned recreation, migrant community service or opportunity centers, and job development, counseling and placement.

0275. Eicher, Joanne Bubolz. "Social Factors and Social Psychological Explanations of Non-migration." Unpublished
* doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1959.
The author studied the relationship of ethnic background and age and concludes from her study that, "Statistical results support only one hypothesis, namely, older age is highly associated with aspirations obtainable within the community....Seven out of 11 objective indices for community satisfaction supported association with older age....The overwhelming majority of non-migrants of all age and ethnicity groups seem extremely satisfied with the community, for few seriously intend to leave."

0276. Eisenstadt, Samuel N. The Absorption of Inmigrants. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955.

0277. Eldridge, Hope T. "The Influence of Return Migration upon Rates of Net Migration." Bulletin of the International Statistical Institute, 40 (1964), 321-349.

0278. Eldridge, Hope T. *Net Intercensal Migration for States and Geographic Divisions for the United States, 1940-1960.* Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, Population Studies Center, 1965.

0279. Eldridge, Hope T. "Primary, Secondary, and Return Migration in the United States, 1955-1960." *Demography*, 2 (1965), 444-455.

0280. Eldridge, Hope T., and Thomas, Dorothy S. *Population Redistribution and Economic Growth, United States, 1870-1950.* Vol. III. *Demographic Analyses and Interrelations.* Philadelphia: American Philosophical Society, 1964.

0281. Eldridge, Hope T., and Yun, Kim. *The Estimation of Intercensal Migration from Birth Residence Statistics: A Study of Data for the United States, 1950-1960.* Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, Population Studies Center, 1968.

0282. Epps, Edgar G. "Correlates of Academic Achievement among Northern and Southern Urban Negro Students." *Journal of Social Issues*, 25 (1969), 55-71.

0283. European Society for Rural Sociology. *Rural Migration.* Paper presented to the First Congress of the European Society for Rural Sociology, Brussels-Louvain, September, 1958. Bonn: Privately published, 1959.

0284. Fabrega, Horacio, Jr. "Mexican Americans of Texas: Some Social Psychiatric Features." *Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrants.* Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 249-273.

Migration and acculturation are said to have similar behavioral implications as influential processes, although the traditional approaches toward studying each have been different. When the focus is on Mexican-American migrants, procedures used when both processes are being studied, therefore, are appropriate; i.e., both psychological and sociodemographic variables should be taken into account. Background features of Mexican-Americans which are discussed include general sociohistorical dimensions, sociodemographic features of the Mexican-Americans of Texas, and some cultural features. Psychiatric aspects of Mexican-Americans are also noted, and the author investigates value identification of patients and nonpatients of his own study. The confirmed hypothesis was that Mexican-Americans would exhibit greater disorganization, regressions and grossly psychotic behavior among patients because of their general lateness of hospitalization by their families in the course of illness . The author notes that the "unacculturated" Mexican-American patients were diagnosed with the greatest clinical differences, pointing to underlying differences in definitions of "illness," "need for treatment," and "tolerance of psychiatric symptoms" among cultures.

0285. Fairchild, Charles. Worker Relocation: A Review of U. S. Department of Labor Mobility Demonstration Projects. Final Report submitted to the U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. Washington, D. C.: E. F. Skelley and Co., Inc., 1970.

0286. Farley, Reynolds. "The Urbanization of Negroes in the United States." Journal of Social History, 1(3) (Spring, 1968), 241-258.
An historical overview of Negro urban migration from the post-Civil War period to 1960 shows that the Southern Negro population is still a growing population. Despite years of outmigration, the number of Negroes in the South has grown from about eight million at the turn of the century to 11.25 million in 1960. Within the South the rural Negro population will continue to decline. The rural farm population is sure to drop as aggregation occurs in agriculture. The rural nonfarm Negro population may increase as it did from 1950 to 1960. As larger Southern cities expand and smaller cities obtain industrial plants, many Negroes can begin to work at nonfarm jobs while living in rural areas. As the cities of the South grow, the Negro urban population in this region will also increase. Though there has been a long history of Negroes leaving the South, it is extremely difficult to predict the volume or direction of such migration. If the outmigration rates of the 1950's persist, says the author, the number of outmigrants will be larger. It might be argued that persistent social and economic systems facilitate the migration of many Negroes away from the South to the cities of the North and West. However, increased economic opportunities in some regions of the South, such as Florida and Texas, may combine with decreasing economic opportunities in Northern cities to diminish the outmigration of Negroes from the South.

0287. Fein, Rashi. "An Economic and Social Profile of the American Negro." Daedalus, (Fall, 1965).

0288. Fein, Rashi. Educational Patterns in Southern Migration. Washington, D. C.: The Brookings Institution, 1965.
The author, using 1960 Census data to determine the relationship between education and migration from the South among white and nonwhite males, found that the rate of outmigration is high, particularly among the better educated and younger men.

0289. Ferman, Louis A., and Aiken, M. "Mobility and Situational Factors in the Adjustment of Older Workers to Job Displacement." Human Organization, 26 (Winter, 1967), 235-241.

0290. Ferman, Louis A., et al. Poverty in America: A Book of Readings. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press, 1965.

0291. Ferman, Louis A., Kornbluh, Joyce L., and Haber, Alan. (eds.) Poverty in America: A Book of Readings. (Rev.) Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan Press, 1968. This book offers a comprehensive anthology and is a revised and expanded edition of a book published under the same title in 1965. The readings are organized under various aspects of poverty, and this edition includes more material on rural and Spanish-American poverty and expanded discussions of policies to combat poverty.

0292. Ferriss, Abbott L. "North Carolina Trade Centers, 1910 to 1940: A Study in Ecology." Doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina, 1949.
This study examines the changing pattern of trade centers in one state, utilizing data from Dun and Bradstreet, Inc., as well as from the Census and other sources. A decline of more than 900 in the number of trade centers in the state during this period was documented along with the changing patterns of the services offered. The relationship to changing patterns of transportation is also examined.

0293. Field, Donald R. "The Social Characteristics Associated with Growing and Declining Small Towns in Wisconsin." Unpublished master's thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1965.

0294. Fishman, Betty G. "Economic Effects of Internal Migration: An Exploratory Study." Business and Economic Studies, 10(4) (1968).
Migration may play a vital role in distributing the labor force more efficiently, thus mitigating inequalities of economic opportunity. The author investigated the relationship between migration and the level and pattern of consumption expenditures of urban families. Data are from the 1950 and 1960-61 Bureau of Labor Statistics-Wharton School's "Study of Consumer Expenditures, Incomes and Savings." Analysis indicates that there is a measurable relationship between total current expenditure and migration. The average and marginal consumption functions of migrant urban families is higher in all categories, except food, than for nonmigrant families.

Average consumption expenditures of migrant urban families exceed their average disposable income. An increase in public or private investment expenditures which encourages migration is likely to result in a larger increase in consumption expenditures and thus lead to an increase in national income and gross national product. Consumption expenditures decline as disposable income increases, but this has not been true in the last two decades, a fact which is linked to continued migration.

0295. Folger, John K. "Models of Migration." Selected Studies of Migration Since World War II: Proceedings of the 34th Annual Conference of the Milbank Memorial Fund, Part III. New York: Milbank Memorial Fund, 1958. Pp. 155-164.
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This is a methodologically-oriented paper, which discusses a new model and some of the limitations of existing models. Directions for developments in model building are suggested. The mathematical relationships developed to date to explain or describe migration have demonstrated clearly that population movements are clearly patterned and can be described fairly well by introducing only one or two variables. Two best known models are: Zipf's p_1p_2/D hypothesis and Stouffer's hypothesis about opportunities and intervening opportunities. In spite of its limitations, the opportunities and intervening opportunities concept provides a useful approach to analysis of migration, and with a multivariate approach to the definition of opportunities, it provides a basis for considerable additional research. A study of social and psychological factors affecting migration based on interviews which obtained migration histories, reasons for moving, and general attitudes toward migration might be more useful in focusing other migration analyses and illuminating some of their conceptual problems than any other type of study.

0296. Folger, John L. "Some Aspects of Migration in the Tennessee Valley." American Sociological Review, 18 (June, 1953), 253-260.

0297. Folger, John K., and Rowan, John. "Migration and Marital Status in Ten Southeastern Cities." Social Forces, 32 (1953), 178-184.
Findings show little difference in marital status between the in- and out-migrants and the total population of the ten cities, but the migrants have a slightly higher percent married. Data are given by sex and race for city of origin and type of destination-- urban, rural-nonfarm and rural-farm.

0298. Ford, Thomas R., and Sutton, Willis A., Jr. "The Impact of Change on Rural Communities and Fringe Areas: Review of a Decade's Research." *Our Changing Rural Society: Perspectives and Trends.* Edited by James H. Copp. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1964.

0299. Form, William H.,and Rivera, Julius. "The Place of Returning Migrants in a Stratification System." *Rural Sociology*, 23 (1958), 286-297.
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The authors present an examination of the place that returning Mexican migrants from the U. S. occupy in the stratification system of a border community, utilizing data gathered from 130 adult male workers in Sonoyta, Sonora, New Mexico. Local residents perceived a three-strata system, making special distinctions within the lower economic category. The application of an index of status characteristics revealed certain ambiguities and inconsistencies in the stratification system which were not made evident by the use of subjective observation devices. The authors conclude, "Returning migrants tended to be found in the lower middle ranges of the status, class, and power orders of the community."

0300. Forman, Robert Edgar. "The Ideology of Mobility: Some Attitudinal Aspects of Migration." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1959.
The author states that his study "represents an attempt to consider mobility within the general field of sociology." The author says that the ideology of mobility consists of a set of attitudes, values, and beliefs, and he studied this ideology through the "approval or disapproval of a series of statements justifying mobility" by a sample of 1,770 high school students in Minnesota. The number of justifications for mobility were taken as a score, the Mobility Justification Approval index (MJA). Attitudes toward home town were measured with the Community Satisfaction Scale (CSS). The author concludes that "there is a considerable range of attitudes relating to mobility, and that favorable attitudes are closely associated with middle class values. It is thought that this may be attributed to the role mobility may play in the socioeconomic advancement of the individual in accordance with middle class values." It was found that expectation of mobility was strongly related to community satisfaction.

0301. Forman, Robert E., and Francis, Roy G. *Some Ideological Aspects of Migration.* Sociology and Rural Life Paper No. 5220, Scientific Journal Series No. 4. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1963.

0302. Forrester, Jay. Urban Dynamics. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Technology Press, 1969.

0303. Frazier, E. Franklin. "The Impact of Urban Civilization upon Negro Family Life." Cities and Societies: The Revised Reader in Urban Sociology. Edited by P. K. Hatt and Albert S. Reiss, Jr. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957.

0304. Frazier, E. Franklin. "The Negro Family in Chicago." Contributions to Urban Sociology. Edited by Ernest W. Burgess and Donald J. Bogue. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964.

0305. Freedman, Ronald. "Cityward Migration, Urban Ecology, and Social Theory." Contributions to Urban Sociology. Edited by Ernest W. Burgess and Donald J. Bogue. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964.
A discussion of the cityward migrant concludes that migrants have characteristics of the ideal-type city dweller, although some rural-farm male migrants from Southern regions have been found to have the low occupational, educational, or economic status of the stereotype migrant (1940-1950 data).

0306. Freedman, Ronald. "Health Differentials for Rural-Urban Migration." American Sociological Review, 12(5) (October, 1947), 536-541.
Comparative analysis of illness rates of farm migrants to cities with the remainder of the surveyed population of the National Health Survey concludes that the health of the migrants was poorer than that of the general urban population.

0307. Freedman, Ronald. "Migration Differentials in the City as a Whole." Cities and Society. Edited by Paul K. Hatt and Albert J. Reiss, Jr. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1963.
An article originally published in 1950 which reported a study of the role of the migrant in Chicago compares the migrant's social status with the characteristics of the city's population as a whole. Only male rural-farm migrants were of low social and economic status.

0308. Freedman, Ronald. Population: The Vital Revolution. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965.

0309. Freedman, Ronald. Recent Migration into Chicago. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950.

0310. Freedman, Ronald, and Freedman, Deborah. "Farm-Reared Elements in the Nonfarm Population." Rural Sociology, 21 (March, 1956), 50-61.
Two important questions about farm-city migration are

examined: "(1) Are farm migrants concentrated in distinctive social and economic positions in the urban society?, and (2) Do the farm-reared elements of our urban population have low rates of social participation?" "The social status and the social participation rates of all farm-reared persons in the nonfarm population do not necessarily correspond to those of such recent migrants." The sample consisted of 1,887 adults 21 years of age or older in 1952. Findings include the following: 1) "Farm reared persons are found in considerable numbers in every size-class of residence, but they are most concentrated in the smaller non-farm places." 2) "Just about half of the nonfarm adults in the South are farm-reared. Forty-seven percent of the nonwhite nonfarm population is farm-reared, as compared with 32% for the white population. The smallest proportion of farm-reared--15%--is in the Northeast." 3) "The farm-reared are an older group than the nonfarm-reared." 4) "The farm-reared are greatly over-represented in low-status positions, whether the measure of status is education, occupation, family income, or self-perceptions of social status. These relationships persist with relatively little variation when controlled for size of residential community, region of residence, age, sex and color." 5) "The social participation patterns differentiating farm-reared and nonfarm-reared persons in the nonfarm population were found to differ with the type of activity considered." "Perhaps the most significant finding with respect to participation patterns is that the farm-reared have less confidence in the political institutions."

0311. Freedman, Ronald, and Hawley, A. H. "Education and Occupation of Migrants in the Depression." American Journal of Sociology, 56(2) (1950), 161-166.
The research reported in this article was an effort to answer two questions: (1) Is the distribution of educational achievements among intrastate migrants different from that of non-migrants at the source and at the destination of migration, and (2) Is the occupational distribution of intrastate migrants at the time of moving significantly different from that of non-migrants with similar characteristics at the source and at the destination of migration. The data are from the Michigan Population and Unemployment Census of 1935, based on the years 1930-35. The sample consisted of all male migrants to Flint and Grand Rapids from other places in Michigan who were 25 or older at the time of migration. Each migrant was matched to a non-migrant at the source and at the destination with respect to age, occupation, occupational history prior to migration, employment history, employment status and marital status. For the occupa-

tional analysis, education was substituted for occupation as a control. In addition to the four matched groups of non-migrants, four random groups of non-migrants were drawn (one from Flint, one from Grand Rapids, and one from migration sources for each city). In comparison with randomly selected non-migrants at the origin, migration to Flint was selective of the least educated, while that to Grand Rapids was selective of the better educated. However, in neither case did the migrants differ significantly in education from the randomly selected groups at the destination. Surprisingly, when the six variables were controlled, there was no significant educational selection of migrants. There was a slight tendency toward positive educational selection at the point of origin and in Grand Rapids, but it was not statistically significant. There was a marked selection of the higher occupational groups at both the source and destination when comparison was with the randomly selected group of non-migrants. Both cities attracted white collar workers in greater proportions than they occurred at the sources. Selection at the source was attributable to chance, but, at the destination, it is statistically significant. The tentative conclusion of this study was that selectivity of given individual traits is a function of partial control of the remaining characteristics. This was supported by the lack of statistically significant selection in education and occupation found in this study.

0312. Fried, Marc. "Deprivation and Migration: Dilemmas of Causal Interpretation." (a) On Understanding Poverty: Perspectives from the Social Sciences. Edited by Daniel P. Moynihan. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1968. Pp.111-159. (b) Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 23-72. Similarities and differences between the European immigration into the U. S. from 1820-1930 and the Negro migration from the South to the North from 1900 to the present are discussed. The idea was to find out how deprivation functions in massive population redistributions. Of great importance to the migrant, it is noted, is the degree of change required in cultural orientations, social relationships and patterns, and the possibility of anticipating roles and situations. Other significant factors are links to the new environment, past experiences, and resources and skills for coping with change. Discussions center on conditions of in- and outmigration, and social mobility and assimilation among Negroes. The author concludes, "...the idea of the U. S. as a melting pot emerges as a mythical elaboration of fragmentary truth and gives way to an image of widespread inequality, racist attitudes and ethnic segregation as the dominant reality."

0313. Fried, Marc. "Grieving for a Lost Home." The Urban Condition. Edited by L. J. Duhl. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc., 1962.

0314. Fried, Marc, and Gleicher, Peggy. "Some Sources of Residential Satisfaction in an Urban Slum." Journal of the American Institute of Planners, 27(4) (November, 1961).

0315. Fried, Marc, and Levin, Joan. "Some Social Functions of the Urban Slum." Urban Planning and Social Policy. Edited by B. J. Frieden and R. Morris. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1968.

0316. Fried, Marc, et al. A Study of the Demographic and Social Determinants of Functional Achievement in a Negro Population. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 89-4279. Chestnut Hill, Mass.: Boston College, Institute of Human Sciences, 1971.

0317. Friedland, William H. "Migrant Labor as a Form of Intermittent Social Organization and as a Channel of Geographical Mobility." Ithaca: Cornell University, New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations, 1967. (Mimeographed.)

0318. Friedman, J. "Poor Regions and Poor Nations: Perspectives on the Problem of Appalachia." Southern Economic Journal, 32(4) (April, 1966).

0319. Frumkin, R. M. "Rural Families in an Urban Setting: A Study in Persistence and Change." Journal of Human Relations, 9(4) (Summer, 1961), 494.

0320. Fuchs, Victor R. "Differentials in Hourly Earnings by Region and City Size, 1959." Occasional Paper No. 101. New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1967.

0321. Fuguitt, Glenn V. "Part-Time Farming and the Push-Pull Hypothesis." American Journal of Sociology, 64 (January, 1959), 375-379.
The object of this paper is to test the push-pull hypothesis for the extent of part-time farming. The author states that (1) if the extent of part-time farming is positively associated with the level of off-farm opportunities and, independent of this, (2) negatively associated with the level of opportunities in agriculture, then the push-pull hypothesis will be supported by local-origin data. Data for the study were obtained from the 1950 Censuses of Agriculture and Population. The hypothesis that the proportion of farm operators engaged in

part-time farming is directly related to off-farm opportunities and inversely related to opportunities in agriculture by counties for Wisconsin is supported by the data for all farmers considered together and for commercial farmers separately. For non-commercial farmers, on the other hand, the results do not explicitly agree with the hypothesis. The author says that while these findings for non-commercial farmers are at variance with the explicit statement of the hypothesis, they are not really inconsistent with it if one considers the county segments, which include only farmers who grossed less than $1,200 from their farms in 1949, as rating uniformly low in opportunities in agriculture.

0322. Fuguitt, Glenn V. "Some Characteristics of Villages in Rural America." *Rural Poverty in the United States.* A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 51-72.

0323. Fulmer, John L. "Urbanization and Agriculture." *Agricultural Progress in the Cotton Belt Since 1920. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1950.* Pp. 107-134.
This chapter presents a discussion on the volume and selectivity of migration and the effects of migration on the population and agriculture of the cotton belt.

0324. Fulmer, John L., and Robinson, J. W. "Worker Mobility and Government Aid." *Business and Government Review*, 7(5) (September-October, 1966).

0325. Gallaway, Lowell E. "Age and Labor Mobility Patterns." *Southern Economic Review*, 36(2) (October, 1969), 171-180.

0326. Gallaway, Lowell E. "The Effect of Geographic Labor Mobility on Income: A Brief Comment." *Journal of Human Resources*, 4 (Winter, 1969), 103-109.

0327. Gallaway, Lowell E. *Geographic Labor Mobility in the United States, 1957-1960.* Research Report No. 28. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1969.

0328. Gallaway, Lowell E. "Industry Variations in Geographic Mobility Patterns." *Journal of Human Resources*, 2 (Fall, 1967), 461-474.

0329. Gallaway, Lowell E. *Interindustry Labor Mobility in the United States, 1957-1960.* Research Report No. 18. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

0330. Gallaway, Lowell E. "Labor Mobility, Resource Allocation and Structural Unemployment." *American Economic Review*, 53 (September, 1963), 694-716. Reply with rejoinder by

V. Stoiker: American Economic Review, 55 (June, 1965), 527-532.

0331. Gallaway, Lowell E. "Mobility of Hired Agricultural Labor: 1957-1960." Journal of Farm Economics, 49 (Part I) (February, 1967), 32-52.

0332. Gallaway, Lowell E. "The North-South Wage Differential." Review of Economics and Statistics, 45 (August, 1963).

0333. Gallaway, Lowell E.; Gilbert, R. F.; and Smith, P. E. "Geographic Labor Mobility: An Empirical Analysis." Western Economic Journal, (June, 1967), 211-223.

0334. Galle, Omer R., and Taeuber, Karl E. "Metropolitan Migration and Intervening Opportunities." American Sociological Review, 31 (February, 1966), 5-13.
The authors present a successful demonstration of Stouffer's model to predict migration streams using 1955 and 1960 Census data.

0335. Galloway, Robert E. Part-Time Farming in Eastern Kentucky: A Study of Economic Area 8. Bulletin 646. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1956.
The author shows that between 1940 and 1950, even though the number of farms and the farm population decreased by 23 and 27 percent, respectively, the rural population of the area remained predominantly farm. More than a third of the area farm families had members who had left home to stay since January 1, 1946. A section on "Children Who Left Home to Stay" presents data on characteristics and present status of outmigrants.

0336. Galpin, Charles J., and Manny, T. B. Interstate Migrations among the Native White Population as Indicated by Differences in State of Birth and State of Residence: A Series of Maps Based on the Census, 1870-1930. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1934.

0337. Gans, Herbert J. "The Sociology of New Towns." Sociology and Social Research, 40 (1953), 231-239.

0338. Garlock, F. L. "Farm Poverty." Agricultural Finance Review, 28 (November, 1967).

0339. Garwood, John D. "An Analysis of Postwar Industrial Migration to Utah and Colorado." Economic Geography, 29(1) (January, 1953), 79-88.

0340. Geddes, Joseph A. Migration: A Problem of Youth in Utah. Bulletin 323. Logan, Utah: Utah Agricultural Experiment Station, 1946.
The author presents an analysis of population movement within, into, and out of Utah, 1935-40, based on infor-

mation from a youth survey and the 1940 Census. Persons migrating from farms (9,094) between 1935 and 1940 showed tendencies to avoid large cities and farms, and to favor smaller cities and villages.

0341. Gee, Wilson. "Migration from Farms." The Social Economics of Agriculture. New York: McMillan Co., 1954. Pp. 386-390.
The author considers extent and causes of farm migration in relation to the social and economic effects upon the farm community.

0342. Gegan, Vincent F., and Thompson, Samuel H. "Worker Mobility in a Labor Surplus Area." Monthly Labor Review, (December, 1957), 1451-1456.
The authors present results from a pilot study of worker mobility in Harrison County, West Virginia. It was shown that depletion of manpower resources because of migration from areas where unemployment has persisted in spite of overall national economic progress is a grave problem. The study showed that the outmigrants were less firmly established in the work force than those who stayed. They had lower earnings at the beginning of the period. More drew unemployment insurance benefits. A much lower proportion had continuous employment during the 2-year period. Although outmigrants who were employed at the beginning and end of the period had improved their earnings, nonmigrants who maintained their 1953 industry attachments through the first quarter of 1955 were found to have retained a wage advantage over all the other groups.

0343. "Geographic Labor Mobility in the United States: Recent Findings." Social Security Bulletin, 30(3) (March, 1967).

0344. George, M. V. Internal Migration in Canada: Demographic Analyses. Ottawa, Canada: Dominion Bureau of Statistics, 1970.

0345. Geschwind, R. D., and Ruttan, V. W. Job Mobility and Migration in a Low-Income Rural Community. Research Bulletin 730. Lafayette, Ind.: Indiana Agricultural Experiment Station, 1961.
This report presents information on the factors which influence job mobility and migration in the low income rural community of Shoals (pop.: 4,000) in southern Indiana. The results are compared with the findings of a similar study in the high income rural community of Brookston (pop.: 2,000) in northern Indiana. In the Shoals community: (1) The migrant was younger and better educated than the nonmigrant. The migrant had a high or low rather than a median level income and occupied a high social position in the community. (2) A comparison

of the job-mobile (change of occupational classification) and the non-mobile individuals showed no difference in age, level of income and education. Mobile individuals did, however, tend to occupy a relatively low social position. (3) Individuals who changed occupations had more thorough knowledge of available job opportunities than was characteristic of the non-mobile persons. (4) Individuals who changed their community or their occupation tended to have little or no proprietary interest in their place of employment. (5) Migration into Shoals by persons with technical and professional skill has complemented migration out of the community by other occupational groups. Comparison of the Shoals and Brookston communities indicated that: (1) Persons with supplementary sources of income tended to be in the high income group in Shoals and in the low income group in Brookston. (2) In Brookston former farmers were younger than the current farmers, whereas in Shoals movement out of farming occurred at all age levels. (3) In both Brookston and Shoals, movement from farming to local non-farm employment resulted in a decline in social status. (4) Individuals in Brookston were more successful in expressing motives for social and economic betterment through job mobility and migration than residents of Shoals. (5) In both Brookston and Shoals movement out of agriculture occurred primarily among farmers in the group with lowest gross sales of farm products. More of the former farmers in the Brookston community were tenants than owners. In the Shoals community there were as many former owners as tenants among former farmers.

0346. Gibbs, Jack P. "Note on Industry Changes and Migration." American Sociological Review, 29 (April, 1964), 266-270.

0347. Gibbs, Jack P. "On the Estimation of Rural-Urban Migration." Urban Research Methods. Princeton, N. J.: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1961. Pp. 562-576.

0348. Giffin, Roscoe. "Appalachian Newcomers in Cincinnati."
* The Southern Appalachian Region: A Survey. Edited by Thomas R. Ford. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky Press, 1962. Pp. 79-84.
This chapter concerns migrant families with at least one child in a grade below high school in Cincinnati. The research was based on data from 211 households (1141 persons). The study "was designed to determine by empirical means whether or not Southern Appalachian newcomers participate in the organizations of Cincinnati more or less frequently than do their neighbors of comparable social class." People from the Southern Appalachian region did not differ significantly in their social participation from those coming from other regions; however, adults

from the Southern Appalachians did participate much less often in voluntary organizations such as lodges, unions, neighborhood clubs, and community center activities. Generally, people of lower social status, to which group most Southern Appalachian newcomers belong, were found to be less well-adjusted to urban life than those of higher social status.

0349. Giffin, Roscoe. Report of a Workshop on the Southern Mountaineer in Cincinnati. Cincinnati: Mayor's Friendly Relations Committee, 1954.
This is a report of workshop discussions on the background characteristics of Kentucky migrants in terms of adjustment problems in Cincinnati.

0350. Ginzberg, Eli, and Handwerger, Roberta. "The Development of an Index on the Changing Position of the Negro in the U. S." Working Paper. New York: Columbia University, Conservation of Human Resources Group, 1966.

0351. Gisser, M. "On Benefit-Cost Analysis of Investment in Schooling in Rural Farm Areas." American Journal of Agricultural Economics, 50(3) (August, 1968), 621-629.

0352. Gist, Noel P., and Clark, D. C. "Intelligence as a Selective Factor in Rural-Urban Migration." American Journal of Sociology, 44 (July, 1938), 36-58.

0353. Gist, Noel P., and Gregory, Cecil L. Selective Factors in Migration and Occupation: A Study of Social Selection in Rural Missouri. Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri, 1943.

0354. Gleicher, Peggy. "Some Aspects of Social Affiliation among Women in an Urban Slum." Unpublished master's thesis, Northeastern University, 1965.

0355. Glynn, Jerome. "Some Effects of Migration on Texas Counties, 1950-1960." Texas Health Bulletin, (April, 1962), 12-17.

0356. Godwin, Joseph Randall. "Subregional Migration, 1935-40:
* An Analysis of the Structure of Migrant Characteristics Across Metropolitan and Non-Metropolitan Migration Streams." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, 1960.
This dissertation describes a study of Illinois migrants around the following hypotheses: "(1) An analysis of the characteristics of migrants across metropolitan and nonmetropolitan subregional migration streams would reveal a structuring of migrant characteristics in terms of common factors, and (2) that these common factors are similarly patterned across all migration streams."

"Although the basic classification and tabulation of census data restricted a meaningful interpretation of factors, the findings suggest the major question of whether migration phenomena are a function of the age structure of population aggregates or whether the incidence of migration is a function simply of decisions of persons who do migrate....The conceptual framework of metropolitan and nonmetropolitan migration streams provides a basic analytical model within which probability theory may be employed as a means of describing the expectancies of migration phenomena."

0357. Goldberg, David. "The Fertility of Two-Generation Urbanites." Population Studies, 17(3) (March, 1959), 214-222.

0358. Goldberg, David, et al. Estimates of Population Change in Michigan: 1950 to 1960. Michigan Population Studies No. 1. Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, Department of Sociology, 1960.

0359. Goldsmith, Harold Frank. "The Meaning of Migration: A
* Study of the Migration Expectations of High School Students." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1962.
High school students in Ontonagon County, Michigan, were studied to provide a "model for explaining the initial stage of voluntary migration." "The desire to migrate can be accounted for chiefly by the relative attractiveness of social situations." Both community satisfaction and the degree to which expectations can be met outside primary community "were found to affect independently the students' desire to migrate. Evidence supported the conclusion that obligations in migrants' community of origin played a critical and perhaps the most important role in determining consideration of migration. To the extent that students considering migration had facilities for migrating, it was predicted that they would expect to migrate." Some modifications necessary to improve the predictive efficiency and explanatory value of the model are suggested.

0360. Goldsmith, Harold F., and Beegle, J. Allan. The Initial Phase of Voluntary Migration. Rural Sociology Studies No. 1. East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State University, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, 1962.

0361. Goldstein, Sidney. "City Directories as Sources of Migration Data." American Journal of Sociology, 60(2) (September, 1954), 169-176.

0362. Goldstein, Sidney. "Migration: Dynamic of the American City." American Quarterly, 6(4) (Winter, 1954), 337-348.

In the Norristown study, information was obtained through (1) a survey in 1952 of a 10% sample of Norristown's households to obtain records of both the personal migration histories of the current Norristown population and the factors involved in their spatial movements, and (2) an extensive analysis of the city directories of Norristown from 1910 to 1950 to obtain the migration history of the city's population and the historical perspective within which the survey data on the 1952 population of the community could be intepreted. In Norristown migration was four times as important as the vital processes in bringing about the population growth of adult males between 1910 and 1950. Despite the fact that its net gain has been greatly reduced in recent decades, migration continues to change the character of the Norristown population through the large number of persons moving into and out of the community. The author states that the inconsistency between two findings of high population instability and high social stability suggested that further explanation of the type of persons who were moving into and out of the community was warranted. The author says that through comparison of the results it became possible to ascertain that the high rates of mobility largely represented the movement into and out of Norristown of the same mobile elements in the population, thereby leaving a core population which by its continuous residence gave stability to the community's social organization and enabled it to withstand most of the disorganizing effects that might otherwise have occurred both for the more recent years and for the past. Of the 1952 household survey, a very significant difference exists between the migration status of the whites and Negroes. Migrants constituted 61% of the total white adult population, but 85% of the adult Negro group. The survey data indicate, however, that a large porportion of the migrants did not move to Norristown directly from their place of birth, but instead made either one or many moves before they finally arrived. The sources of the Negro migrants to Norristown were different from those of the whites. Unlike the white migrants, there appears to be no pattern of repeated moves among the Negroes. The author says that it was impossible to predict individuals among the migrants in the 1952 population of Norristown would soon move out of the community and which would make it their permanent residence.

0363. Goldstein, Sidney. "Migration and Occupational Mobility
* in Norristown, Pa." American Sociological Review, 20(4) (August, 1955), 402-408.

A ten percent random sample of all male residents of

Norristown, who were listed in the city directories from 1910 to 1950 were studied, using birth certificates, death certificates, and city directories of Norristown. The purpose of the study was to determine what relationship, if any, exists between occupational mobility and the migration patterns. The study suggested that, the more Norristown was able to meet the changing needs for its labor force by attracting persons from outside, the less need there would be for occupational mobility by those gainfully employed in the local economic structure.

0364. Goldstein, Sidney. "Patterns of Internal Migration: Norristown, Pennsylvania, 1910-1950." Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, Behavioral Research Council, 1953.

0365. Goldstein, Sidney. Patterns of Mobility, 1910-1950: The Norristown Study. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1958.
In- and outmigration, covering the years 1910 to 1950 were studied to analyze the historical role played by migration in changing the demographic structure of the community.

0366. Goldstein, Sidney. "Repeated Migration as a Factor in High Mobility Rates." American Sociological Review, 19(5) (October, 1954), 536-541.

0367. Goldstein, Sidney, and Mayer,K. "Migration and the Journey to Work." Social Forces, 42 (May, 1964), 472-481.

0368. Good, Paul. "Poverty in the Rural South." New South, 23(1) (Winter, 1968), 2-119.

0369. Goodman, L. A. "Statistical Method for the Mover-Stayer Model." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 56 (1961), 841-868.

0370. Gossman, Charles S., et al. Migration of College and University Students in the United States. Seattle: University of Washington, Press, 1968.

0371. Graves, T. D. "Alternate Models for the Study of Urban Migration." Human Organization, 25 (Winter, 1966), 295-299.

0372. Graves, Theodore D., and Van Arsdale, Minor. "Perceived Opportunities, Expectations, and the Decision to Remain on Relocation: The Case of the Navajo Indian Migrant to Denver, Colo." Navajo Urban Relocation Research, Report No. 5, June, 1965.
This study of Navajo Indians who migrated from their reservations to Denver had three basic goals: 1) to discover the social-psychological factors which indicated the decision to migrate; 2) to investigate changes in attitudes, values, and behavior during the Denver expe-

rience; and 3) to pinpoint the socioeconomic and psychological variables that predict the type and quality of the migrant's urban adjustment.

0373. Graves, T. D., and Van Arsdale, Minor. "Values, Expectations and Relocation: The Navajo Migrant to Denver." Human Organization, 25 (Winter, 1966), 300-307.

0374. Gray, Wayne T. "Population Movements in the Kentucky Mountains." Rural Sociology, 10(4) (December, 1945), 380-386.
The author investigates migration during World Wars I and II and during the depression of the 1930's, and discusses migrants' educational attainment, occupations engaged in while away, distance and destination of migration, reasons for moving and other related factors.

0375. Greenwood, Michael J. "An Analysis of the Determinants of Geographic Labor Mobility in the United States." Review of Economics and Statistics, 51(2) (May, 1969), 189-194.
The author estimates the degree by which each of several factors influenced interstate migration between 1955 and 1960. Employed as a dependent variable is the number of persons, five years or older, residing in the destination state (state j) on April 1, 1960, who resided in state j on April 1, 1955, divided by the total number of persons five years or older who resided in the origin state (state i) on April 1, 1955. Gross (normalized) interstate migration of the population is related to several variables, each an aggregate proxy. These independent variables employed include: (1) the 1955 mileage between the principal city in state i and that of state j; (2) the 1959 median money income of males in state j in 1960 divided by same in state i; (3) the median number of school years completed by over-age-25 residents of both states; (4) the percent of the unemployed civilian labor force during the first week of April, 1960, in both states; (5) the percent of population living in urban areas of state j in 1960 divided by the same in state i; (6) the mean yearly temperature in the principal city of state j divided the same in state i; and (7) the number of persons born in state i, living in state j in 1950. Each of the 48 contiguous states was chosen as a destination, and normalized gross migration to each of the other 47 states is analyzed.

0376. Grimshaw, Allen D. "Relationship between Agricultural and Economic Indices and Rural Migration." Rural Sociology, 23(4) (December, 1958), 397-400.

0377. Grandstaff, Carl F. "The Negro, Urbanization, and Relative Deprivation in the Deep South." Social Problems, 15(3)

(Winter, 1968), 342-352.
This paper presents data from the 1960 Census to support the hypothesis that as the Negro becomes more urban in the Deep South, he becomes less equal in relative terms to the white population around him, using indices of education, occupation, and income as measurement. The data are presented for rural and urban places in the states of Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina and one large urbanized area in each state (Jackson, Birmingham, Atlanta, and Charleston). The author claims that these data lend strength to the argument that the Negro revolt and riots in the cities can be understood in some measure by realistically seeing the inequality the Negro is faced with in his normal life situation.

0378. Grodzens, Morton. "New Shame of Cities." *Confluence*, 7 (Spring, 1958), 29-46.
This is primarily a study of the effects of inmigration and differential fertility on the ecological patterning of cities, and the social effects that the sharp increases in the proportion of Negroes in certain areas of the city will have upon it. Some generalizations put forward are as follows: (1) Growth of Negro population in central cities as patterned is largely the result of increased migration from the South, although the natural increase rate is also greater; (2) Population concentration of Negroes is segregated; (3) Once an urban area begins to swing from predominantly white to predominantly Negro, the trend is rarely reversed; (4) Pattern is from the core of the city outward; (5) Negro population moves into areas already characterized by high residential mobility. The remainder of the article discusses "tipping" of neighborhoods, educational factors, et cetera.

0379. Grossman, David A., and Levin, Melvin. *The Appalachian Region: A Preliminary Analysis of Economic and Population Trends in an Eleven State Problem Area.* Atlanta: Council of Appalachian Governors, 1961.

0380. Grove, Robert D. "Dimensions of Population Mobility and Change." *American Journal of Public Health and the Nation's Health*, 46 (May, 1956), 592-596.

0381. Gulick, John, and Bowerman, Charles E. *Adaptation of Newcomers in the Piedmont Industrial Crescent.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina, Institute for Research in Social Science, 1961.

0382. Gulick, John, *et al.* "Newcomer Enculturation in the City: Attitudes and Participation." *Urban Growth Dynamics.* Edited by F. S. Chapin, Jr. and S. F. Weiss. New York:

John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1962.
The author finds that white male migrants in Greensboro and Durham, North Carolina, had adapted quickly and successfully to the new area and did not approach the stereotype of the migrant.

0383. Gupta, Ajit Das. "Types and Measures of Internal Migration." International Population Conference Proceedings, 1959. Vienna: International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1959. Pp. 619-624.
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Three types of migration are discussed: "(1) voluntary or (2) obligatory movement of the head or the independent individual; and (3) sequential movement of dependents.... A high degree of interdependency occurs between certain types, forms and motivations of migration. The various pushes and pulls, particularly social or political, could exercise opposite influence on different population groups. The reason of migration could thus be equivocal and resultant of diverse pulls. Various measures of migration are needed for different purposes and call for different approaches. Generation migration and cumulated lifetime migration since birth of the individual which go back longitudinally into the distant past, are of historical and sociological interest, but do not portray current conditions. Net migration over short intervals, especially if available as a series, is good enough for most practical purposes. But measures of flow migration are necessary to understand current processes fully. Surveys for measurement of migration can conveniently collect information on community (and transit) and also on motivations. While the time interval is divisible, the space dimension is not; and this is the problem of migration statistics. It is suggested that the area of the spatial segment is not so important as internal homogeneity, and that a plausible device is to split the country into homogeneous segments by characteristics, like economic opportunities and living conditions, in a manner analogous to stratification in sampling."

0384. Gupta, Savita. "Net Migration in Michigan, 1950-60: An Analysis of Population Change in Relation to the Demographic, Socioeconomic and Occupational Variables." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University.
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This dissertation utilizes data from a study of Michigan migrants, 1950-1960, based on Census data..."The first task of this thesis was to establish the validity of using net migration, the central variable, as a measure of population change in terms of redistribution of the population." The second one was "to study the nature of the changes which characterize the social organization when net migration takes place, and to study also the

influence of population characteristics on net migration as a process." "The results of the thesis indicate that net migration is as valid a measure for studying population change as other measures, such as total increase in population. The patterns of net migration are also closely related to recent past growth, and respond closely to the socio-economic changes in Michigan in terms of location of the industries, transport and communications, and raw materials...The findings show that when net migration increases, the sex ratio, population density, educational level, median family income, and percent employed in manufacture also increase; on the other hand, when net migration increases, the dependency ratio, the percent employed in agriculture, and the percent 65 years and over in age, decline."

0385. Gutierrez, Elsa Lapuz. "A Study of Migration among Rural Youth in Montgomery and Stokes Counties, North Carolina, 1947-1956." Unpublished master's thesis, North Carolina State College, n.d.

0386. Gwartney, J. "Changes in the Nonwhite-White Income Ratio--1939-67." American Economic Review, (December, 1970), 872-883.

0387. Hackethorn,Jack. "The Farm Problem Moves to Town." Co-op Grain Quarterly, 16(1) (Spring, 1960), 14-17. The author discusses some of the social consequences of farm-to-city migration in rural Missouri.

0388. Haenzel, William. "Concept, Measurement and Data in Migration Analysis." Demography, 4 (1967), 253-261.

0389. Hagood, Margaret J. "Dynamics of Rural Population." Rural Life in the United States. Edited by Carl C. Taylor. New York: Alfred Knopf, 1949. Pp. 233-244. This chapter deals with rural-urban differences in fertility and mortality, rural-urban and farm-nonfarm migration and trends in the farm population. Future levels of the farm population will be affected by (1) the changing need for workers in agriculture, (2) the alternative need for workers in urban areas, and (3) the nonfarm employment of farm residents.

0390. Hagood, Margaret J. "The South's Great Export: People." Southern Agriculturist, 77(2) (February, 1948), 12. The author finds that heavy migration from southern farms has been stimulated by high birth rates, opportunities for industrial employment, and reduction in farm jobs due to mechanization of agriculture.

0391. Hagood, Margaret J., and Sharp, Emmit F. Rural-Urban Migration in Wisconsin, 1940-1950. Research Bulletin 176. Madison, Wisc.: Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Sta-

tion, 1951.
The authors analyze changes in urban and rural population due to births, deaths, and net migration by economic areas. Decreasing labor requirements in agriculture and increasing industrial employment opportunities have produced migration from farms.

0392. Haller, A. O. "Education and the Occupational Achievement Process." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 149-169.
The author finds that "...the rural Southern and Southwestern Negroes are clearly the students who are least prepared for satisfactory achievement in the modern occupational structure." Topics of discussion of particular interest are rural-urban differences in occupational achievement and educational achievement, with special consideration of rural-urban aspects of the regional and racial distribution of population.

0393. Haller, A. O. "The Occupational Achievement Process of
* Farm-Reared Youth in Urban Industrial Society." Rural Sociology, 25 (September, 1960), 321-333.
The author presents results of a study based on information from 109 17-year old farm boys in schools in Lenawee County, Michigan, in Spring, 1957. The objective of the paper is to explore differences among farm boys who do and do not plan to farm...so as to formulate a tentative explanation for the low levels of nonfarm occupational aspiration of farm-reared people. "The data suggest three kinds of things which may result in planning not to farm: 1) The development of an unusually well-controlled independent and inquisitive personality, probably as a consequence of early training; 2) Being the son of parents who are more oriented toward the nonfarm world than is usual; 3) Perceiving farming as being an unattainable occupation." The early vocational self conception of farm boys tends to be that of a farmer. "The occupational importance of higher education is more apparent to those who are least identified with farming." It is hypothesized that the one who plans not to farm is, by virtue of his occupational self-conception, more highly motivated to seek out information which will enable him to be a success in the nonfarm world.

0394. Hamilton, C. Horace. The Changing Population of the USA South. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina, The Carolina Population Center, 1970.

0395. Hamilton, C. Horace. "Continuity and Change in Southern Migration." The South in Continuity and Change. Edited

by John C. McKinney and Edgar T. Thompson. Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1965. Pp. 53-78.
While migration from the South has attracted a great deal of attention, the author notes several other aspects of Southern population movements which are important. Among those discussed are: (1) the high rates of movement within the South between both States and local areas, and from rural to urban areas; (2) the growing movement into Southern states from other regions; (3) the white-nonwhite differentials in migration within, to, and from the South; (4) the high correlation between formal education and migration; (5) the role of migration in adjustment of youth to changing occupational opportunities; and (6) the impact of changing fertility levels and patterns of migration to and from the South.

0396. Hamilton, C. Horace. "County Net Migration Rates." *Rural Sociology*, 30(1) (March, 1965), 13-17.

0397. Hamilton, C. Horace. "Educational Selectivity of Migration from Farm to Urban and Other Non-farm Communities." *Mobility and Mental Health.* Edited by Mildred B. Kantor. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1965. Pp. 166-195.

0398. * Hamilton, C. Horace. "Educational Selectivity of Net Migration from the South." *Social Forces*, 38 (October, 1959), 33-42.
The author presents a study of educational selectivity of migration to and from the Southern region of the U. S. for persons 15 and over based on Census data. Findings are: (1) Migration from the South during 1940-1950 was selective of both the educationally inferior and superior elements of the parent population. However, the selective effect was not a marked one. The highest loss was in the no-education category. (2) "Net migration of adult nonwhite population from the South, 1940-1950, was selective of the well-educated population only, whereas net migration of adult white population was largely selective of the poorly educated and only moderately selective of the well educated." (3) "Selective patterns of net migration from the South and from farms change with age: from selection at the extremes among young adults to selection of the poorly educated among middle-aged and old-aged adults." (4) "Net migration has substantially lowered the educational level of the urban and rural nonfarm areas to which migrants have gone both in and out of the South."

0399. * Hamilton, C. Horace. "Educational Selectivity of Rural-Urban Migration: Preliminary Results of a North Carolina Study." *Selected Studies of Migration Since World War II: Proceedings of the 34th Annual Conference of the Milbank*

Memorial Fund. New York: Milbank Memorial Fund, 1958. Pp. 110-122.
The author presents findings of a study of North Carolina migrants, using residual-survival rate data taken from Census reports. Six hundred and 11 households in Stokes and Montgomery counties were included. "The residual-survival rate analysis, applied to the rural-farm population 20-34 years of age in 1940 tends to show that net migration takes its heaviest toll from the extremes of the educational levels....The field surveys show...rates of net migration from rural areas increase with education, and no tendency to select from the extremes is found, as was the case with the Census analysis. The difference in the results obtained by the two approaches tends to confirm the hypothesis that the pattern of educational selectivity by migration changes with age...."

0400. Hamilton, C. Horace. "Effect of Census Errors on the Measurement of Net Migration." Demography, 3(2) (1966), 393-415.
This paper charts the history of the use of vital statistics, survival rates, and ratios in the estimation of net migration from one decade to another, with citation of net migration studies of various researchers.

0401. Hamilton, C. Horace. Estimates of the Population of North Carolina Counties, 1966 and 1967 and of Components of Population Change Since 1960. Demographic Report H-I. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina, The Carolina Population Center, 1968.

0402. Hamilton, C. Horace. "How Many of Our Farm Families Are
* Leaving the Farm?" Research and Farming, 14 (Summer-Autumn, 1955), 12-13.
The author discusses a study of trends of migration from farms in North Carolina, using Census data. During 1940-50, nearly 33% of the persons living on North Carolina farms moved away from the farms. The migration rate was the same for both sexes, and for whites and nonwhites. The highest migration rates for the males was in the 20-24 age group and, for the females, in the 17-19 age group. In general, migration to rural nonfarm areas was twice as heavy as to cities. Negroes tended to leave North Carolina at a much higher rate than the whites, by-passing her cities. About 50% of the net migration from farms can be accounted for by population pressure. The rest of the rural-urban migration needs to be explained by the differential between economic opportunities in the city and the country.

0403. Hamilton, C. Horace. "The Negro Leaves the South." Demography, 1(1) (1964), 273-295.

Analysis shows that: (1) Migration of Negroes from the South picked up around 1910, increased rapidly in the 1920's, and slowed down during depression years, and surged ahead during and after World War II. (2) Causal factors have been the high rate of natural increase in the South, mechanization of Southern agriculture, shift of cotton production to the Southwest and West, governmental programs limiting agricultural production, and rapid economic development in non-Southern areas. (3) The highest rates of outmigration have occurred among young people aged 18-25. The tendency for older people to move back to the South is more pronounced among whites than blacks. (4) Migration of blacks has been selective of the best-educated; however, educational level of black migrants has been below that in the communities of destination. (5) There is now an indigenous and rapidly increasing black population in non-Southern areas and is larger than the inmigrant from the South population in non-Southern areas. (6) There is very small amount of black remigration to the South but a substantial interstate black movement within the South. (7) If present migration trends continue, 75-85% of U. S. black population will live outside the South. (8) Negro migrants have gone almost entirely to central cities of metropolitan areas in the North and West. (9) The mass of these migrants to these areas have moved into low-status, low-wage occupations. Although greatest increases have occurred in unskilled and semi-skilled work, there are significant increases in number of black white collar and skilled blue collar workers. (10) Educational level of Negroes in non-Southern metropolitan areas is still quite low--over 50% never attended high school. (11) In spite of migration, the South's black population is still increasing at a rate of about 10% a decade.

0404. Hamilton, C. Horace. "Population Pressure and Other Factors Affecting Net Rural-Urban Migration." Demographic Analysis: Selected Readings. Edited by Joseph J. Spengler. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1956. Pp. 419-424. Results of analysis show that (1) Migration from farms is highly correlated with population pressure, particularly at the age when farm youth enter the labor market; (2) Correlation of population pressure with migration does not appear to be so important in the case of the total population; (3) Changes in crop acreages are highly correlated not only with the migration of rural youth but with the migration of the population as a whole; and (4) Adjust correlation coefficients in regional variation has very little effect on the multiple and partial correlation coefficients.

0405. Hamilton, C. Horace. "Practical and Mathematical Considerations in the Formulation and Selection of Migration Rates." Demography, 2 (1956), 429-443.

0406. Hamilton, C. Horace. "The Vital Statistics Method of Estimating Net Migration by Age Cohorts." Demography, 4(2) (November, 1967), 464-478.

0407. * Hamilton, C. Horace. "Whither Our Youth?" Research and Farming, 16(9) (Spring, 1958).
The study sample discussed included persons in two all-rural North Carolina counties (Montgomery and Stokes), between the ages of 15 and 39 who had resided with their parents at some time since January 1, 1947. The data were derived from a sample survey of 638 cases. The question explored was, "Will your child stay on the farm?" In the 20-24 age group, education and migration, especially to cities, were related positively. Migration from farms and from the state were less in older groups....Race difference becomes progressively greater as education increases....Losses are 5 to 10% greater for males than females in each color group having more than a fifth grade education." Nearly 50% left home permanently at some time during the ten-year interval. "There is a high relationship between the residence of parents and the destination of their children. Also, there is a strong association between distance and residential class of destination."

0408. * Hamilton, C. Horace, and Aurbach, Herbert. What's Happening to North Carolina Farms and Farmers. Bulletin 407. Raleigh, N. C.: North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, 1958.
North Carolina farms and farmers were studied, using data derived from 1954 Census of Agriculture. A general description of what is happening to North Carolina farms and farmers, including their heavy out-migration is given. "Two factors are responsible for the heavy migration from farms: (1) population pressures caused by higher birth rates in the country than in the city, and (2) relatively greater economic opportunity in the city than on farms....Negroes migrate from farms at about the same rate as do the whites...but...when nonwhites migrate from the farm they are much more likely than whites to leave the state."

0409. Hamilton, C. Horace, and Henderson, F. M. "Use of Survival Rate Method in Measuring Net Migration." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 39 (1944), 197-206.

0410. Handlin, Oscar. The New Comers: Negroes and Puerto Ricans in a Changing Metropolis. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959.

0411. Handlin, Oscar. The Uprooted. Boston: Little, Brown Co., 1951.

0412. Haney, George B. Selected State Programs in Migrant Education. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963.

0413. Hansen, Niles M. "Regional Development and the Rural Poor." Journal of Human Resources, 4(2) (Spring, 1969), 205-214.
The author states that, "The recently published final report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty is distorted by its failure to come to grips adequately with the issue of population migration. The present paper analyzes the nature and consequences of the Commission's shortcomings in this regard; in addition, it proposes an alternative approach oriented more toward people and less toward place." "The Commission's basic approach to the rural poor implies that solutions to their problems should not entail significant population migration." "The social costs of congestion in large urban areas constitute the principal justification for the Commission's position on migration." "In addition to arrangements to lower taxes, the Commission proposed that self-sustaining growth be promoted in rural areas by other types of subsidies, including grants, low interest loans, and the construction of industrial sites for new and expanding industries." "In view of the nature and magnitude of the forces influencing industrial location, how realistic is the Commission's faith in localized subsidies and strategies to induce industrial decentralization sufficient to absorb rural unemployment and underemployment?" "...the experience of other countries provides some valuable insights...." "In France, for example, efforts have been made for well over a decade to promote economic activity in lagging regions, particularly those of the West...." "Yet they still have not significantly improved the relative position of the regions of the West...." "Italian efforts to promote the industrialization of the Mezzogiorno and thereby halt out-migration also have met with disappointing results." "It is difficult to find any case where hot-house efforts to promote the development of large lagging regions have met with success. Moreover, recent American and foreign evidence concerning greater equality in the geographical distribution of manufacturing does not indicate any corresponding lessening of regional income differences or any relatively greater attractiveness of small towns or lagging regions." "Those industries that have tended to leave metropolitan areas have been characterized by relative stagnation or decline; they frequently seek cheap

labor in areas with surplus agricultural populations. Rapidly expanding sectors, on the other hand, have favored already-concentrated regions because of their numerous external economies of agglomeration. The growing role of the tertiary sector deserves particular attention." A discussion of this follows. "Among tertiary activities, an increasingly important part is being played by amenities." "Of course, many of these phenomena are recognized by the President's Commission. In particular, it points out that the industries that are generally attracted to rural communities are not rapid growth industries in terms of employment." "Given this situation, it is difficult to justify the Commission's position that people should be guaranteed equal economic opportunity regardless of their place of residence." "In general, where workers in rural areas and small towns are paid substantially less than they could earn elsewhere and where this situation is likely to persist, a policy of relocation assistance appears to be more rational than efforts to attract economic activity." "...the assumption that the social costs of bringing industry to poorer regions would be less than the social costs involved in the migration of workers and the increase in congestion and unemployment in industrial areas might well be reasonable if there were only two basic types of regions, lagging and congested. However, migration may be directed toward intermediate regions where growth is rapid but where congestion poses no immediate threat." The author cites the following remarks from Lansing and Mueller's The Geographic Mobility of Labor: "Unfortunately, the kinds of workers who are susceptible to unemployment for the most part have a low propensity to move. Unemployment constitutes a 'push,' leading people to move if they are young, well-educated and trained, or live in a small town. But in the absence of such characteristics, unemployment is not likely to overcome the reluctance to move." "Educational and vocational training efforts as well as guidance programs are sorely needed to maintain or improve the quality and also the mobility potential of the labor force in redevelopment areas." The author continues, "Yet there is no convincing evidence that central government programs can attract enough industry to the countryside to provide people everywhere with jobs in proximity to their places of residence, even if this were desirable on value rather than efficiency grounds. On the other hand, a good case can be made for federal subsidies for investment in education, health, and training in lagging regions, as well as for relocation subsidies and information programs to facilitate rational migration."

0414. Hanson, Robert C. "The Systematic Linkage Hypothesis and Role Consensus Patterns in Hospital-Community Relations." American Sociological Review, 27 (1962).

0415. Hanson, Robert C., and Simmons, Ozzie G. "Differential Experience Paths of Rural Migrants to the City." Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 145-166.
Through the use of time trend data for a sample of 66 Mexican-American migrants to Denver the authors analyzed the adjustment process following migration. A typology of four groups was established on the basis of socioeconomic status and welfare recipiency: (a) Thrivers, (b) Stumblers, (c) Strugglers, and (d) Losers. Analyses focused on employment, income, patterns of expenditure, rootedness-stability, accumulation of property, misfortune experiences (legal difficulties and medical expenses), neighborhoods, deviant friends, heavy drinking, and rapid family expansion. It was found that those who started off in a relatively advantaged position but ended up on welfare did so because of unstable employment experience, exacerbated by earlier-established spending patterns. Those who did not start off in an advantaged position but who managed to stay off welfare were found most likely to have had better health and a smaller burden of family responsibilities.

0416. Hanson, Robert C., and Simmons, Ozzie G. "Role Path: A Concept and Procedure for Studying Migration to Urban Communities." Human Organization, 27 (Summer, 1968), 152-158.

0417. Hanson, Robert C.; Simmons, Ozzie G.; and McPhee, W. N. "Time Trend Analyses of the Urban Experiences of Rural Migrants to the City." Paper presented at the Conference on Adaptation to Change sponsored by the Foundation's Fund for Research in Psychiatry, San Juan, Puerto Rico, 1968.

0418. Hanson, Robert C., et al. "A Simulation Model of Urbanization Processes." Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 377-394.
This is a presentation and discussion of a computer simulation model which reproduces the life experiences of rural migrants as they learn to adjust to the city environment.

0419. Hardert, Ronald Albert. "Social Structural Factors Influencing the Urbanization of Appalachian Hill Emigrants in an Urban Ghetto." Dissertation Abstracts, 28(9) (March, 1968), 3778A-3779A.

0420. Hare, Nathan. "Recent Trends in the Occupational Mobility of Negroes, 1930-1960: An Intracohort Analysis." *Social Forces*, 44 (1965), 166-173.

0421. Harmsworth, Harry C. *Sixty Years of Population Growth in Idaho, 1890-1950.* Moscow, Idaho: University of Idaho, Department of Sociology, 1952.

0422. Harris, B. W. *Population Changes among Rural Negroes in Mississippi.* Lurman, Miss.: Alcorn Agricultural and Mechanical College, Department of Agricultural Economics, 1956.
The author shows that between 1930 and 1950 the migratory stream from rural areas was composed largely of Negroes who were leaving farms. The exodus was greatest among tenants and sharecroppers from the Delta and Brown Loam agricultural areas.

0423. Harris, C. C., Jr., and McGuire, M. C. "Planning Techniques for Regional Development Policy." *Journal of Human Resources*, 4(4) (Fall, 1969).

0424. Harris, Fred. (ed.) *Social Science and National Policy.* Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1970.

0425. Harris, J. R., and Todaro, M. P. "Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two Sector Analysis." *American Economic Review*, (March, 1970).

0426. Harrison, Robert H., and Kass, Edward B. "MMPI Correlates of Negro Acculturation in a Northern City." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 10(3) (1968), 262-270.

0427. Hart, John F. "Migration and Population Change in Indiana." *Proceedings of the Indiana Academy of Science*, 66 (1957), 195-203.

0428. Hart, John F. "Negro Migration in the United States." *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 48 (Spring, 1958), 268.

0429. Harwood, Edwin S. "Work and Community among Urban Newcomers: A Study of Social and Economic Adaptation of Southern Migrants in Chicago." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1956.

0430. Hathaway, Dale E. "Migration from Agriculture: The Historical Record and Its Meaning." *American Economic Review: Papers and Proceedings*, 50 (May, 1960), 379-391, 413-418.
The author describes volume of migration, characteristics of migrants, and social and economic problems of communities affected by migration from farm to nonfarm areas. Although this migration has its positive aspects,

it has not greatly improved the relative position of low-income farm people.

0431. Hathaway, Dale E., and Perkins, Brian B. "Farm Mobility, Migration and Income Distribution." *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 50 (May, 1968), 342-356.

0432. Hathaway, Dale E., and Perkins, Brian B. "Occupational Mobility and Migration from Agriculture." *Rural Poverty in the United States.* A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.
The authors report findings of an extensive analysis of the impact of job mobility and migration upon individuals classified as farm wage workers or farm operators under Social Security coverage. Among main conclusions were the following: (1) "...gross data on job mobility and migration can be highly misleading;" (2) "Long distance migration when changing jobs is a function of age, race, sex, county of origin, and farm status before moving. The young, Negroes, males, low income persons, and those from high income counties were the most common long-distance migrants;" (3) "Long distance migrants did not have long-term earnings as high as short distance movers;" and (4) "In general, the mobility process works less well for those who need it most. It appears that it may result in a widening of income differentials between high and low income farm people and high and low income farm areas."

0433. Hathaway, Dale E., Beegle, J. Allan, and Bryant, W. Keith. *People of Rural America.* A 1960 Census Monograph. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.

0434. Hauser, Philip M. "Demographic Factors in the Integration of the Negro." *The Negro American.* Edited by Talcott Parsons and Kenneth B. Clark. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1966.

0435. Hauser, Philip M. (ed.) *Handbook for Social Research in Urban Areas.* Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1964.

0436. Hauser, Philip M. *On the Impact of Population and Community Changes on Local Government.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, Institute of Local Government, 1961.

0437. Hauser, Philip M., and Eldridge, Hope T. "Projection of Urban Growth and Migration to Cities in the United States." *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly*, 25(3) (July, 1947), 293-307.

0438. Hayes, Marion. "Regional Differences in Jobs, Income and Migration, 1929-49." *Monthly Labor Review*, 71(4) (October, 1950), 433-437.

0439. Heberle, Rudolf. "Migratory Mobility: Theoretical Aspects and Problems of Measurement." *Proceedings of the World Population Conference, 1954. Papers, Volume II. New York: United Nations, 1955.*

0440. Heberle, Rudolf. "Social Consequences of the Industrialization of Southern Cities." *Cities and Society.* Edited by Paul K. Hatt and Albert J. Reiss, Jr. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957.

0441. Heberle, Rudolf. "Types of Migration." *Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, 36 (June, 1955), 65-70.
While not attempting to do away with well-established classifications by direction, distance, and duration of sojourn, Heberle develops concepts of basic "ideal" types of migration which are differentiated by two sociologically significant criteria: (1) the way in which migration affects the social relationships of the migrants, and (2) the difference in sociocultural systems between areas of origin and destination. In the section on Migration as Affect on Social Relationships of Migrants, the author discusses and gives examples of voluntary communal migration, voluntary quasi-communal migration, involuntary communal and quasi-communal migration, modern voluntary movement in industrial society, modern migration in pre-industrial societies, and semi-voluntary migration. The investigation led the author to the following generalization: "the more advanced the economic structure of a society, the greater the importance of intrinsic and social, instead of extraneous and natural, forces in determining volume and direction of migration." A discussion follows on migration by differences in sociocultural systems of origin and destination, with distinctions being made concerning "technological" and "expressive" cultures.

0442. Heer, David M. "The Attractiveness of the South to Whites and Nonwhites: An Ecological Study." *American Sociological Review*, 28 (February, 1963), 101-107.

0443. Heflin, Catherine P., and Beers, Howard W. *Urban Adjustment of Rural Migrants.* Bulletin 487. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1946.

0444. Heller, Celia Stopnicka. "Ambitions of Mexican-American Youth: Goals and Means of Mobility of High School Seniors." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia University, 1964.

0445. Henderson, Sidney. *Labor Force Potential of Farm Migration Available for Urban Growth, Eight Nebraska Cities, 1940-1950.* Business Research Bulletin 60. Lincoln, Neb.:

The author measures the extent of farm migration, its age composition, and its availability for new industry in the larger cities of Nebraska.

0446. Henderson, Vivian W. "The Economic Status of Negroes: In the Nation and In the South." Report No. 3. In series, Toward Regional Realism. Atlanta: Southern Regional Council, after 1963.
Topics discussed include the structural reorganization of the South, including loss of people, black movement to central cities, and employment and sources of income; the slight gains of Negroes, with data on income and occupations; and effects and costs of discrimination, with data on education and public policies.

0447. Hernandez, Alvarez Jose. Return Migration to Puerto Rico. Population Series Monographs No. 1. Berkeley: University of California, Institute of International Studies, 1967.

0448. Herr, William McD. "Credit and Farm Policy." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 522-541.
This article contains discussions of credit use among farmers, particularly those with chronically low incomes or those in poverty, contributions of FHA loan programs and their effect in alleviating low farm income, Rural Housing Loan program, Economic Opportunity loan program, and adjusting credit programs for chronically low income farmers. Findings: (1) While relatively fewer low income farmers use credit than higher income farmers, many low income farmers have reasonable access to a variety of competing sources of credit; (2) An aspect requiring more careful analysis concerns nonwhite borrowers, as a comparison of white and nonwhite borrowers of the same age and assets in the South indicates that nonwhite farmers obtain loans that are only half the size obtained by white farmers. More data are needed; no comparisons can indicate whether nonwhite farmers have satisfactory access to FHA credit or not; and (3) The Economic Opportunity Loan Program is new, but available data indicate that in most areas it is reaching the hard core of rural poverty families. Negroes have satisfactory access to Economic Opportunity loans and their average amount of credit obtained is not greatly different than for white borrowers.

0449. Herzog, Elizabeth. "Some Assumptions about the Poor." Social Service Review, 37 (1963), 389-402.

0450. Hildahl, S. H. "A Longitudinal Analysis of Migration of Young Adults, Hamilton County, Iowa." Unpublished master's thesis, Iowa State University, 1961.

0451. Hill, George W. "Recent Population Changes in Rural Wisconsin." Rural Sociology, 12(2) (June, 1947), 169-172.
The author examines the amounts and rates of migration of several cohorts of young people.

0452. Hill, L. D. "Characteristics of the Farmers Leaving Agriculture in an Iowa County." Journal of Farm Economics, 44 (May, 1962), 419-426.

0453. Hillery, George A., Jr., et al. "Migration Systems of the Southern Appalachians: Some Demographic Observations." Rural Sociology, 30 (March, 1965), 33-48.
This study on which the paper is based focused on an analytical scheme for fitting migration streams into an integrated whole. Attention was on indicating the probable existence of "migration systems" on a demographic level, their conceptual form, the data necessary to study them, and associated problems.

0454. Hitt, Homer L. "Migration between the South and Other Regions, 1949 to 1950." Social Forces, 36(1) (October, 1957), 9-16.
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This paper concerns migrants from the South, 1949-50, aged one year and over. Basic data were from a Special Report of the 1950 Census of Population, "Population Mobility--States and State Economic Areas." "Attention was focused exclusively upon the exchange of population between the South and the other regions of the country during a limited period of time, 1949-50." "These data indicate that the Census South joined the West as a net importer of population from other sections of the nation between 1949 and 1950. Corresponding figures for the 11 states of the Southeast reveal that the region so defined also registered a net interregional migration gain. If valid, these data are significant because either they mark the end of a demographic era or they single out a unique year in the interregional migration experience of the South."

0455. Hitt, Homer L. "Peopling the City: Migration." The Urban South. Edited by Rupert B. Vance and Nicholas J. Demerath. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1954. Pp. 54-77.
The author analyzes the sources and magnitude of the migration to Southern cities and the selectivity of this migration, and compares the migration to the urban South with cityward migration in other regions of the Nation.

0456. Hitt, Homer L. "Population Movements in the Southern
* United States." The Scientific Monthly, 82 (May, 1956), 241-246.
This article shows results of a study of the people of 12 states: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Okalhoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. Most data were from U. S. Censuses of Population. An attempt is made to add details regarding such aspects of the recent population movements as the sources and destinations of migrants, the approximate magnitude of the population transfer, and some conception of the population redistribution that has taken place. "Data provide a composite picture of...the urbanization of the South. This process...has been generally similar to that which occurred earlier in the Northeast and Far West. Rural areas of the South have furnished migrants...and have been progressively depopulated while doing so. Urban centers and urban fringe areas have grown rapidly, and the people of the South are increasingly becoming concentrated in the larger cities and metropolitan areas. Moreover, interurban migrations are even more frequent than the more highly publicized rural-urban movements."

0457. Hobbs, Albert H. "Differentials in Internal Migration." Unpublished thesis, University of Pennsylvania, 1942.

0458. Hodgell, Murlin Ray. "Low-Income Rural Families in an
* Urbanizing Society." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Cornell University, 1960.
The author presents results from a study of low-income rural families with emphasis on four segments: "the low-income subsistence farmer; the stranded farmer who has been forced off the farm in the consolidation process and who may be found at every economic level; the migratory worker; and the rural non-farm worker." "The root causes of the plight of such people are investigated and the interrelationships between these elements of rural society and between their problems and the larger problems of agricultural and urban development are discussed....Special attention is given to such urban problems as the rapid growth of slums, housing for minority groups, functional illiteracy, suburban sprawl, employment and industrialization, all of which have been greatly complicated by the farm-to-city migration. Rural industrialization for small cities and rural communities is suggested as one key to solving many of the seemingly diverse problems which plague both rural and urban areas...." The study deals extensively with techniques of rural redevelopment and industrialization.

0459. Hofstee, E. W. "Some Remarks on Selective Migration." Publications of the Research Group for European Migration Problems. The Hague: Research Group for European Migration Problems, 1952.

0460. Hollister, R. "Education and Income--A Study of Cross-Sections and Cohorts." Conference on Policies for Educational Growth. Paris: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1970. Pp. 63-136.

0461. Holt, John B. "Holiness Religion: Culture Shock and Social Reorganization." American Sociological Review, 5 (October, 1940), 740-747.
The author says that the process of urbanization in the Southeast causes the rural migrant to suffer personal isolation and insecurity and brings on a "cultural shock" which has produced the Holiness churches in an attempt to adjust to urbanization.

0462. Hosain, K. T. "Internal Migration and Economic Development." Pakistan Economic Journal, 14 (1964), 51-74.

0463. * Hotz, Marie Brase. "A Study of Cohort Migration in the U. S.: 1870-1950." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Washington University, 1955.
This thesis is a study of migration of cohorts of the native white population in the U. S. between 1870 and 1950. The following hypotheses were investigated: (1) The present distribution of the aged population in the U. S. differs from the distribution of the younger population. (2) Younger persons in the nation's population migrate more than the older members of the population. (3) The number of migrations undertaken by a given cohort are in part dependent upon the time at which they were born. The more recently born are more likely to migrate. (4) Age alone cannot account for migration currents in the U. S." It was concluded that the cohorts method provided an adequate measure for migration. Hypotheses (1), (2), and (4) were supported by the data, but hypothesis (3) was not validated.

0464. Houston, David B., and Teibout, Charles M. "Economic Impacts of Regional Development Policies and Programs." Journal of Farm Economics, 48 (May, 1966), 440-449.

0465. Hudson Institute, Inc. The Future of American Poverty: Some Basic Issues in Evaluating Alternative Anti-Poverty Measures. Springfield, Va.: U. S. Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information, 1968.
This publication consists of four evaluative reports with recommendations for anti-poverty programs: (1) Raymond D. Gastil, "Toward a New Basis for the Evaluation of Anti-Poverty Programs," which discusses several programs,

but warns that programs to support incomes must not undermine work incentives of the poor; (2) John Karlick, "A Supplementary Training and Relocation Program to Activate the Poor," which talks about a combination of job training and relocation in subsidized housing; (3) Laurie R. Rockett, "Work Incentive and Family Allowance Plan," which aims to provide maximum working incentives for physically able poor persons; and (4) Paul C. Berry, Raymond D. Gastil, and Laurie R. Rockett, "Characteristics of Alternative Anti-Poverty Measures." Also included is a discussion on 10 classes of anti-poverty programs, warning that measures to alter the culture and/or the environment of the poor are inadequate unless complemented by income support programs.

0466. Hughes, Rufus B. "Low Incomes in Southern Population Adjustments." Chicago: University of Chicago Library, Department of Photoduplication, 1959.

0467. Huie, J. M. "Migration of Rural Residents." Alabama Agricultural Experiment Station Highlights of Agricultural Research, 9 (Summer, 1962), 14.
The author's subjects are migrants in four counties of Alabama (Clark, Monroe, Montgomery, and Talapoosa) in 1961. A discussion of the degree of outmigration and the characteristics of outmigrants is presented. Although many factors contributed to the rural population loss in the counties, by far the most important was outmigration. The migrants were almost equally divided between the sexes, and were predominantly unmarried and more educated than the nonmigrants. The author concludes that "outmigration of the better trained people represents one of the basic problems that low-income counties and states must overcome to increase income levels of the area."

0468. Humphrey, Norman D. "The Changing Structure of the Detroit Mexican Family: An Index of Acculturation." American Sociological Review, 9 (1944), 622-626.

0469. Humphrey, Norman D. "The Housing and Household Practices of Detroit Mexicans." Social Forces, 21(4) (1946), 433-437.

0470. Humphrey, Norman D. "Migration and Settlement of Detroit Mexicans." Economic Geography, 19 (October, 1943), 358-361.

0471. Huyck, Earl E. "White-Nonwhite Differentials: Overview and Implications." Demography, 3(2) (1966), 548-565.

0472. Ickle, Fred C. "Comment on Theodore R. Anderson's "International Migration: A Comparison of the Hypotheses of Zipf and Stouffer'." American Sociological Review, 20 (6) (December, 1955), 713-714.

0473. Illsley, Raymond, Finlayson, Angela, and Thompson, Barbara. "The Motivation and Characteristics of Internal Migrants." Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly, 41 (1963), 115-144, 217-248.
Part I of this study is an attempt to distinguish subcategories of migrants differing from each other in occupation, area of origin, and reasons for migration; Part II relates data on stature and morbidity to the original social processes leading to migration. The study was conducted on young adults moving into and out of Aberdeen, Scotland, after World War II. The data were collected from a sample of women at their first pregnancy and their husbands; excluded from the sample were those who delivered at home. Outmigration data are from a five year follow-up program and, therefore, represent couples at a later stage of married life. Aberdeen is the only large industrial city in sparsely populated rural northern Scotland. It is a stopping over place for many migrants from northern Scotland to the more southerly areas of Britain. Inmigrants tend to have a higher percentage of professionals and managers than the native population. This is particularly true for long distance migrants. About half of the women migrants came to the city before marriage; these were predominantly short distance migrants discontent with occupational opportunities and/or social life in rural areas. Of the men who migrated to Aberdeen before marriage. about 30% came as independent adolescents or young adults; 32% were professionals or managers. Men who migrated at marriage generally had jobs which were readily available anywhere and came because of the wife's family ties. Migration after marriage was associated with the necessities of specialized occupations. Outmigration tended to be predominantly to urban areas. It was particularly high for couples where one or both spouses was an inmigrant. In comparing inmigrants who later left to those who stayed, it was found that: (1) The initial migration is most stable where only one spouse is an inmigrant or one or both spouses came from the rural hinterland; (2) It is least stable where both partners arrived against the migration stream, i.e., from the areas further south; and (3) Outmigration is more likely where the wife is local and the husband is an inmigrant than in the reverse situation. Most of this outmigration is related to occupation. The outmigration rate is 63% for professionals, 33% for managers, and on down to 10% for unskilled workers. All of the data support the argument that mobility is part of the way of life of young professional couples. Even when controlled for occupation differentials, the inmigrants tended to

have more education than the native population. A relatively high proportion of migrants came from broken homes or had an abnormal upbringing, reflecting weak family ties. These trends were even more marked when the sample was controlled for social class. Intelligence test scores further substantiated the findings. With regard to physique and health, the main findings were: (1) Social class and adult height were significantly and positively correlated; (2) Higher social classes and tall women had significantly lower rates of prenatal death and prematurity; and (3) Adult height and distance of migration were positively correlated after controlling for socioeconomic status. In summary, this study drew distinctions between a number of subgroups, some of which overlap: 1) professionals or semi-professionals pursuing a career, 2) rural-urban migrants of lower occupational status, 3) young inmigrants seeking educational and training facilities, 4) inmigrants arriving to take a specific job, 5) inmigrants previously within daily commuting range or able to maintain weekly contact with kin or out of regular family contact, 6) inmigrants arriving before, on, or after maturity; 7) migrants responding to a specific family, political, or economic event, and 8) return migrants.

0474. Inman, Buis T. Rural Poverty: Causes, Extent, Location and Trends. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1964.

0475. International Journal of Comparative Sociology. Vol. 6, 1965. Special Issue.

0476. International Labour Office. Why Labour Leaves the Land: A Comparative Study of the Movement of Labour Out of Agriculture. New Series No. 59. Geneva: International Labour Office, 1960.

0477. International Labour Review. "Labor Mobility in the U. S.: Bibliography." 79 (March, 1959), 296-314.

0478. International Labour Review. "Rural-Urban Employment Relationship." 74 (January, 1956), 53-67.

0479. Iowa State University of Science and Technology. Ames Center for Agricultural and Economic Development. Family Mobility in Our Dynamic Society. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University, 1965.

0480. Iowa State University of Science and Technology. Ames Center for Agricultural and Economic Adjustment. Labor Mobility and Population in Agriculture. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University, 1961.

0481. Ipsen, Gunther. "Rural Depopulation." Rural Migration.
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presented to the First Congress of The European Society for Rural Sociology, Brussels-Louvain, September, 1958. Bonn: Privately published, 1959. Pp. 46-47. The author presents an inquiry into the factors responsible for large scale migration of rural workers to towns and some of the possible consequences of this movement. "Since the 1880's, mass migration from the country to towns has been observed in Germany....The loss of agricultural manpower...if continued for more time,...must lead to a depletion of all working force and must be deplored....The reasons for migration were not to be sought in the prevailing rural conditions, but in the process of industrial agglomeration, this being a result of the choice of sites for factories and the technical concentration of industrial work....The loss of agricultural manpower,....if continued for a long time,....must lead to a depletion of all working reserves in the countryside....Larger farms...may...have to employ families of agricultural workers."

0482. Isard, Walter, and Bramhall, D. F. "Regional Employment and Population Forecasts Via Relative Income Potential Models." Regional Science Association Papers and Proceedings, 5 (1959), 25-50.

0483. Isenburg, Robert M. "The Rural Disadvantaged." National Education Association Journal, 52(4) (April, 1963).

0484. Jackson, Eureal G. "Some Tendencies in Demographic Trends in Maryland 1950-1956. Current Trends in Negro Education and Shorter Papers." Journal of Negro Education, Section B, 26 (Fall, 1957), 514-519.

0485. Jackson, J. A. (ed.) Migration. Cambridge, Eng.: Cambridge University Press, 1969.

0486. Jaffe, Abram J., and Carleton, R. O. Occupational Mobility in the United States, 1940-1960. New York: King's Crown Press, Columbia University, 1954.

0487. Jakubauskas, Edward B., and Palomba, Neil A. Relocation of Farm Workers from Mississippi to Iowa. Prepared for the Spring Meeting of the Industrial Relations Association, Des Moines, Iowa, May, 1969. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University, 1969. Five families participated in the Mississippi-Iowa Labor Mobility Project from May, 1968, to April, 1969. The purposes of the program were (1) to suggest an alternative source of underutilized manpower in meeting farm labor shortages in Iowa, and (2) to study the process of relocating underemployed Southern farm workers to year-round farm jobs in Iowa which would demonstrate how the South-to-North, rural-to-urban migration pattern might be deflected to smaller Northern communities. The five families experienced substantial income increases. Their average annual income in Mississippi was $2,286. After making the move to Iowa, their average annual income increased to $5,454. This project, say the authors, is not designed for the hard-core disadvantaged worker but should be geared to workers with the following characteristics: (1) a stable marriage, with a mature wife who is willing to endure isolation from friends to improve the family's economic position; and (2) a male family head possessing a strong sense of self-discipline and a will to succeed in spite of difficulty in the short run. Hostility of the community is not as significant as isolation from friends and a completely different cultural environment. The family must have a latent middle-class value structure that somehow must emerge in spite of environmental features in Mississippi which stunt the growth of middle-class values among Delta blacks. Relocation of workers should take place in multiples of two or more families within a relocation area. The receiving area should be no more than 30-40 miles away from an urban center to provide maximum supportive services and to offer alternative employment opportunities to relocatees if Iowa farm employment proves to be unworkable. The optimum number of relocated families that can be moved is about 25 per year. A smaller number produces high administrative costs, while a larger number may develop opposition in the receiving areas.

0488. Janssen, Melvin R. Summaries of Selected Studies on Training of Workers and Migration from Low-Income Rural Areas. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963.

0489. Jay, Florence E. "Those Who Stay: A Sociological Study of the Stability of a Community." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1956.

0490. Jehlik, Paul J. "Iowa Loses More Farm People." Iowa Farm Science, 5(8) (February, 1951), 12-14.
The author discusses migration of farm population as evidence of economic adjustment.

0491. Jehlik, Paul J. "Iowans Are 'Movers' Too." Iowa Farm Science, 8(11) (May, 1954), 8-10.

0492. Jehlik, Paul J. "Patterns of Net Migration and Changes in
* Crude Birth Rates in the North Central States, 1940-1950." Rural Sociology, 20 (December, 1955), 282-288.
The author presents results of a study of migrants in 13 North Central states, 1940-1950, using 173 State Economic areas. Basic sources of data were the Census Reports of Population for 1940 and 1950 and publications from agricultural experiment stations in the 13 states. "The focus of this paper is on an analysis of the sig-

nificant patterns of net migration and of changes in crude birth rates and of their relationship in 13 north central states during the decade 1940-1950." "Analysis of the data clearly shows the concentration of population through net in-migration in the rural parts of metropolitan areas, and especially in the older and larger metropolitan areas. The 64 state economic areas of net in-migration had gains of 19, 36, and 14% in total, rural, and urban population, respectively. The 109 areas of net out-migration maintained a stationary total population, lost 5% in rural population and gained 10% in urban population."

0493. Jehlik, Paul J., and Wakeley, Ray E. Population Change and Net Migration in the North Central States, 1940-1950. Research Bulletin 430. Ames, Iowa: Iowa Agricultural Experiment Station, 1955.
The authors analyze population change by economic subregions with emphasis on net migration and its relationship to population growth and to selected agricultural and industrial factors. Migration played a very important part in the redistribution of the rural-farm and rural-nonfarm populations within metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas.

0494. Jehlik, Paul J., and Wakeley, Ray E. Rural-Urban Migration in Iowa, 1940-1950. Research Bulletin 407. Ames, Iowa: Iowa Agricultural Experiment Station, 1954.
This bulletin describes the volume of major movements of population within Iowa and from Iowa to other states and the resulting redistribution of the population. Changes in population through migration and the agricultural and industrial factors in migration are examined.

0495. Jehlik, Paul J., and Wakeley, Ray E. "What's Happening to Our People?" Iowa Farm Science, 7(8) (February, 1953), 13-16.
The authors give data on natural increase and net migration by counties, 1940-50. Migration is characterized by movement from rural to urban areas, with a net loss in rural population of 57,000 persons, largely due to migration of rural-farm people.

0496. Jerome, Norge W. Food Consumption Patterns in Relation to Life Styles of In-Migrant Negro Families. Madison, Wisc.: University of Wisconsin, Institute for Research on Poverty, 1968.
The author says his discussion demonstrates the relevance of sociocultural characterization to an understanding of the food consumption patterns of families headed by inmigrant Negro manual workers in the central city of Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Results are discussed within a typology of groups, each identified as separate on the

basis of educational achievement, stage in family life cycle, age, psychological orientation, and recency of migration.

0497. Jitodai, Ted J. "Migrant Status and Church Attendance." Social Forces, 43 (December, 1964), 241-248. Responses from a large sample of white adults interviewed in five surveys found that Detroit natives have higher rates of church attendance than migrants from rural or urban areas. The conclusion reached was that the church does not serve as a major channel of adjustment to urban life because the urban church differs from, and does not serve, the same function as the rural church.

0498. Jitodai, Ted J. "Migration and Kinship Contacts." Pacific Sociological Review, 6 (Fall, 1963). Previous studies indicate that geographical mobility hinders participation in voluntary associations and to a greater degree for migrants from rural rather than urban backgrounds. This study reports the results of investigation of one type of informal group participation--that based on kinship--and migration. The author puts forward the hypothesis that compared to participation in voluntary associations and political activities, rural migrants will participate more with kin than do urban migrants. The data are from the Detroit Area Study of the University of Michigan in 1952, 1953, 1957, and 1958. This current study used only native-born white adults. The findings of the study support the hypothesis: (1) Contact with relatives is the most frequent type of informal contact among all residents of Detroit. Neighbors and friends follow, with co-workers being substantially less. (2) The same pattern holds substantially when controlled by sex, socioeconomic status, urban-rural or regional backgrounds, except for white collar migrants from urban backgrounds, who have a higher proportion of contacts with friends than relatives. (3) Among migrants of less than 10 years residence in the city controlled for sex and socioeconomic status, rural migrants have a higher proportion of contacts with relatives than urban migrants. (4) There is no overall pattern of differences in contacts with relatives between migrants and natives or between migrants by regions and sex. (5) Urban-rural and socioeconomic differentials in contact rates with relatives were found among recent migrants. (6) Substantial increases in the proportion of weekly contacts by length of residence for urban migrants, especially white collar, were unanticipated and eliminated any consistent pattern of socioeconomic and rural-urban differences after the period of initial contact. Two possible explanations are offered: (1) There is selective outmigration of those without kinship ties, and/or

(2) Litwak's modern extended family in an industrialized, bureaucratic society is in evidence.

0499. Johansen, D. O. "Working Hypotheses for the Study of Migration." Pacific Historical Review, 36 (February, 1967), 1-12.

0500. Johansen, John P. The Influence of Migration upon South Dakota's Population 1930-1950. Bulletin 431. Brookings, S. D.: South Dakota Agricultural Experiment Station, 1953.
The author presents an analysis of the extent, causes, and consequences of rural-urban migration within the state and from the state. Estimates of net migration for residence groups by sex and for selected age groups are included.

0501. Johansen, John P. The People of Nebraska: A Mid-Century Summary. A Discussion of Population Trends from 1920 to 1950. Economic Progress Report I (Revised). Lincoln, Neb.: Nebraska Agricultural Experiment Station, 1952.
This report discusses farm population decrease and contains tables showing the extent of migration of youth from rural-farm areas, by decades 1930-50.

0502. Johansen, John P. "Recent Population Changes in South Dakota." South Dakota Farm and Home Research, 3(3) (Spring, 1952), 49-54, 76.
The author includes data on changes in farm population, 1920-50, showing a large net outmigration consisting largely of single youths and young married adults and their children.

0503. Johnson, D. G. "Policies to Improve the Labor Transfer Process." American Economic Review: Papers and Proceedings, 50 (May, 1960), 403-418.

0504. Johnson, Elmer H. "Methodological Note on Measuring Selec-
* tion in Differential Migration." Social Forces, 33 (1955), 289-292.
Male migrants aged 25-34 during 1935-40 were studied, using data from Census reports. Two methods of measuring differences between several populations in the force of selection in differential migration are examined. "If the relationship between the specific net migration rates and a given demographic characteristic can be described as linear, the force of selection for the total range of this characteristic can be expressed by a single statistic....Inspection of the education-specific rates for the four regions led to the conclusion that linearity may be assumed if only the five highest educational groups (7 or more years of schooling) are considered."

0505. Johnson, Paul R. "Labor Mobility: Some Costs and Returns." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 238-247.
The author examines gross versus net movements, costs of moving, the function of the capital market, and benefit-cost complications, such as real versus apparent income differences and rural-urban differences in internal discount rates. Of particular interest is a section on returns to migration. The author concludes: (1) "On the average, people do not spend a great deal to move about in actually changing jobs. However, out-of-pocket costs understate the true costs by omitting foregone earnings, costs of search for new jobs, and...psychic costs." (2) "Probably the most important constraint on movement of the rural poor is that of information about both job opportunities and urban life in general. (3) The returns to migration were examined for a sample of migrants in two cities and for two groups of rural poor whose moves were financed by public funds. With reservation, it is stated that "...the costs of the move can be recouped in a year or less."

0506. Jyrkila, Faina. "Effects of Migration on the Adjustment of Finnish Rural Youth." Rural Migration. Papers presented to the First Congress of the European Society for Rural Sociology, Brussels-Louvain, September, 1958. Bonn: Privately published, 1959. Pp. 173-176.

0507. Kain, John F., and Persky, Joseph J. "Alternatives to the Gilded Ghetto." The Public Interest, 14 (Winter, 1969), 74-87.
The basis of many antipoverty proposals stems from a false analogy between the ghetto and a backward country in need of economic development. This view ignores the link between the ghetto and the remainder of the metropolis and the nation. This article centers on the likely repercussions of gilding programs such as Model Cities, designed to attract industry and to encourage compensatory education, housing, and other programs in the ghetto. Gilding programs encourage the growth of Negro ghettos, which are responsible for a host of urban problems. The result of efforts to increase incomes or reduce unemployment in central city ghettos may be to induce a higher rate of Negro migration from Southern rural areas; this will further accelerate the growth of Negro ghettos. Recognition of the migration link between Northern ghettos and Southern rural areas has led to proposals to subsidize economic development, educational opportunities, and living standards in rural areas. At best, such

programs are complementary to programs aimed at ghetto problems. Ghetto dispersal is the only strategy that offers a long-run solution. Programs that strengthen a segregated pattern should be rejected in favor of programs that achieve the objectives posited by gilding schemes, while weakening the ghetto. Such programs include (1) improved transit access between central city ghettos and outlying employment areas; (2) expansion of the supply of low-income housing outside the ghetto; (3) bussing of Negro students to schools outside the ghetto; and (4) creation of smaller Negro communities in suburban areas.

0508. Kain, John F., and Persky, Joseph J. "The North's Stake in Southern Rural Poverty." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 288-308.
The basic premise is that the "roots of much of the poverty in the metropolitan North are traceable to the rural South." Seventy-eight percent of all Southern rural Negroes have incomes below the poverty level. The authors say, "We have found no evidence to support the widely held view that rural southern migration to the North will soon abate." The educational achievement of Southern Negro migrants and Appalachian white migrants is found to be "inferior to the majority of the population from which they come." Policy recommendations are included.

0509. Kampe, Ronald E., and Lindamood, William A. Underemployment Estimates by County, United States, 1960. Agricultural Economic Report No. 166. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1969.

0510. Kanel, Don. "Nebraska Births Exceed Deaths: Migration Cuts
* Population Gain." Nebraska Agricultural Experiment Station Quarterly, 3 (Winter, 1954-55), 6-8.
The author presents results of a study of Nebraska's population during the past 35 years based on Census and related information. Nebraska's farm population has been altered by heavy out-migration in four categories: (1) young people taking nonfarm employment; (2) older people retiring from their farms; (3) the children of the migrating families, and (4) established farm operators changing to other employment.

0511. Kant, Edgar. "Classification and Problems of Migrations."
* Readings in Cultural Geography. Edited by Philip L. Wagner and Marvin W. Mikesell. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962. Pp. 342-354.
The author presents a theoretical essay, partly inte-

grating statements on migration typology by such men as Arbos, Heberle, and T. Lynn Smith. It opens up problems and prospects in migration research for cultural geographers, particularly for those with interest in cartographic analysis. The author discusses briefly various theories of human migration from prehistoric times to the present. Arbos' dichotomous division of pastoral types, and Lynn Smith's classification of international movements are especially mentioned. Heberle's analysis based on "ideal" types and Torsten Hagerstrand's classification using country, city, and "urbanlike agglomerations" are suggested as further alternative typologies available to the analyst. The author has proposed his own typology based on a dichotomy of "intralocal (intraregional) migration" and "interlocal (interregional) migration."

0512. Kantor, Mildred B. (ed.) Mobility and Mental Health. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

0513. Kariel, H. G. "Selected Factors Really Associated with Population Growth Due to Net Migration." Association of American Geographers Annals, 53 (June, 1963), 210-223.

0514. Kasahara, Yoshiko. "The Influx and Exodus of Migrants among the 47 Prefectures in Japan, 1920-1935." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1958.

0515. Kaufman, Harold F., and Wilber, George L. Social Changes
* and Their Implications for Southern Agriculture. Sociology and Rural Life Series No. 11. State College, Miss.: Mississippi State University, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1959.
This publication contains a descriptive study of Southern agriculture in the U. S. The changing pattern of farming and the characteristics and behavior of farmers, the rapidly changing rural community, and the great influence of the growing urban society on rural life are examined. "A study of Mississippi migration for the year immediately preceding the taking of the 1950 Census showed that college graduates, persons of higher income, and professional and white collar workers were more likely to migrate and move longer distances than others. ...Perhaps no social changes occurring in the South and the nation as a whole are more significant than those described by the term urbanization. Urban growth has resulted not only in massing of populations but also in the concentration of power and authority."

0516. Kaye, Ira. "Rural-Urban Migration." CAP Rural Opportunities, 4(6) (1969), 4-6.

0517. Kee, Woo Sik. "The Causes of Urban Poverty." Journal of Human Resources, 4(1) (Winter, 1969).

0518. Kelley, A. C., and Weiss, L. W. "Markov Processes and Economic Analysis: The Case of Migration." Econometrika, 37(2) (April, 1969), 280-297.

0519. Kempinski, T. "Rural Migration." Rural Sociology, 26
* (March, 1961), 70-73.
This is the substance of a report made by the author to the European Society for Rural Sociologists, September, 1958, Louvain, Belgium. Economic causes, political reasons, problems, social and psychological effects, advantages, and regulation of migration are discussed. Rural exodus is caused mainly by the fall in farm labor requirements ("push") and by the attractions of urban life ("pull"). Where good town jobs are scarce, rural people emigrate abroad. Problems of rural refugees from former Eastern German territories and from Eastern Germany are mentioned. There are social and psychological difficulties both in farm-to-town and farm-to-farm migration, but there are also economic advantages for the countryside and for the nation. Various proposals for state regulation and aid for rural migration and for encouraging rural people to remain in the countryside are summarized. The trend toward commuting creates problems of urban over-spill which interests both rural sociologists and town-planners.

0520. Kerr, Clark. Migration to the Seattle Labor Market Area 1940-1942. Seattle: University of Washington Press, 1942.

0521. Kester, William H. "Recent Population Trends in the Eighth District." Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis Monthly Review, 38(6) (June, 1956), 70-77.
The author presents results of a study of natural increase and migration and their effect on the population from 1940 to 1955. Data are presented by metropolitan and nonmetropolitan residence. Migration is found to have been influenced largely by declining farm employment.

0522. Ketch, Clarence Willard. "A Situational Analysis of the
* Effects of Drouth as a Disaster on the Mobility of a Selected Rural-Farm Population." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Louisiana State University, 1961.
All residents of each of three selected Census precincts in Mills County, Texas, and all migrants who were within a 60-mile radius of the study area and who had migrated there between 1950 and 1958 were studied. Data were collected from 879 persons, and supplementary data from Census reports were used. The effort was to understand the role of drouth in the lives of farm operators and their household members and to determine the nature and

extent of changes made to cope with drouth. "Drouth is not associated with migration to the extent commonly assumed. However, dry-land farmers move more frequently in times of drouth than do ranchers. Persons moving because of drouth do not find migration a satisfactory adjustment." The same general characteristics of age, sex, and education are found as in migrants generally. Reactions to drouth are manifested in changes in farming practices, off-farm work, use made of farm agencies, use of programs such as Soil Bank programs...."Empirical research is needed to find out if drouth is a unique and crisis experience to residents of an area."

0523. Killian, Lewis M. "The Adjustment of Southern White Migrants to Northern Urban Norms." *Social Forces*, 32 (1953), 66-69.

0524. Killian, Lewis. "Southern White Laborers in Chicago's West Side." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1949.

0525. Killingsworth, Charles C. *Jobs and Income for Negroes.* Policy Papers in Human Resources and Industrial Relations No. 6. Ann Arbor, Mich. and Detroit: University of Michigan, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations and Wayne State University, 1968.
The author describes ways Negroes have adapted to changing labor demands and analyzes some of the sources of their disadvantages in the labor market. The author evaluates economic expansion, transfer payments, and several OEO work training and service programs.

0526. King, Charles E. "The Negro Maternal Family: A Product of an Economic and a Cultural System." *Social Forces*, 24 (October, 1945), 100-104.

0527. Kinman, Judith L., and Lee, Everett S. "Migration and Crime." *International Migration Digest*, 3 (1966), 7-14.

0528. Kirk, Dudley. "Major Migrations Since World War II." *Selected Studies of Migration Since World War II: Proceedings of the 34th Annual Conference of the Milbank Memorial Fund.* New York: Milbank Memorial Fund, 1958. Pp. 11-28.

0529. Kiser, C. V. "Birth Rates of Rural Migrants in Cities." *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly*, 36 (October, 1958), 369-381.

0530. Kleiner, Robert J., and Parker, Seymour. "Goal Striving and Psychosomatic Symptoms in a Migrant and Nonmigrant Population." *Mobility and Mental Health.* Edited by Mildred B. Kantor. Springfield, Ill.: Charles Thomas, 1965. Pp. 78-85.

0531. Kleiner, Robert J., and Parker, Seymour. "Migration and Mental Illness: A New Look." American Sociological Review, 24 (October, 1959), 687-690.
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The author presents an analysis of 2013 first-admission Negro mental patients to Pennsylvania state psychiatric hospitals. The study "examines the question of first admission rates to mental hospitals of interstate migrant and nonmigrant Negroes in Pennsylvania." The data clearly indicate that the Southern Negro migrant population is under-represented and that both the Northern migrants and natives are over-represented in the statistics on first admissions....The data tend to support those investigations that cast doubt on the psychopathogenic qualities of the interstate migration experience itself as an important factor in mental disorders."

0532. Kleiner, Robert J., and Parker, Seymour. "Social-Psychological Aspects of Migration and Mental Disorder in a Negro Population." Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 353-374.
Findings show that Northern Negroes had higher rates of mental disorder than Southern migrants, were characterized by higher levels of upward and downward social mobility and more intense goal-striving behavior, and had weak or ambivalent attitudes toward their Negro group membership. Thus, characteristics shown previously to exist in only mentally ill groups were found to exist in high illness-yield community population segments. The findings that social mobility was associated with high rates of mental disorder and that high illness rates characterized Northern Negroes indicated that the Northern group was more socially mobile than a Southern migrant group. The significance of the Black Power movement in Negro life is discussed with the above findings taken into account.

0533. Kluckhohn, Florence R., and Strodtbeck, Fred L. Variations in Value Orientations. Elmsford, N. Y.: Row, Peterson, and Co., 1961.

0534. Knowlton, Clark S. "The Spanish Americans in New Mexico." Sociology and Social Research, (1961).

0535. Knox, John B. "People on the Move." The People of Tennessee A Study of Population Trends. Knoxville, Tenn.: University of Tennessee Press, 1949. Pp. 74-82.
The author discusses the volume of farm migration, by decades, during 1900-1940 for the state as a whole and county differences in net farm migration for 1930-40.

0536. Kolb, John H., and Brunner, Edmund deS. "The Mobility of

Rural Population." *A Study of Rural Society*, 4th Ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin, 1952. Pp. 25-33.
This chapter includes analysis of the volume of farm migration, 1920-48, characteristics of migrants, reasons for migration, and results of the movement to the cities.

0537. Kollmorgen, Walter M., and Jenks, George F. "A Geographic Study of Population and Land Settlement Changes in Sherman County, Kansas." *Transactions, Kansas Academy of Science*, 54(4) (December, 1951), 449-494; 55(1) (March, 1952), 1-37.

0538. Kolodner, Ferne L. *The Unaccepted Baltimoreans: A Study of White Southern Rural Migrants.* Baltimore: National Council of Jewish Women, 1962.
White migrants from Southern rural areas who have not become urbanized regardless of length of residency were studied in an informal way by interviewing of the agency personnel serving these people, personal visits to homes of migrants, and visits to schools.

0539. Krass, E. M., Peterson, C., and Shannon, Lyle W. "Differential Association, Cultural Integration, and Economic Absorption among Mexican-Americans and Negroes in Northern Industrial Community." *Southwestern Social Science Quarterly*, 4(7) (1966), 239-252.

0540. Kummerfeld, D., *et al.* *Federal Activities Affecting Location of Economic Development.* Vol. I. *Summary and Parts I-V.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Commerce, 1970.

0541. Kummerfeld, D., *et al.* *Federal Activities Affecting Location of Economic Development.* Vol. II. *Part I and Appendix A: Program Analysis.* Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Commerce, 1970.

0542. Kuroda, Toshio. "Internal Migration: An Overview of Problems and Studies." *Proceedings of the World Population Conference, Belgrade, 1965: Volume IV.* New York: United Nations, 1967.

0543. Kurtz, Norman R. "Gatekeepers in the Process of Acculturation." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Colorado, 1966.

0544. Kurtz, Richard Allen. "Resident Adjustment Patterns in the
* Rural-Urban Fringe." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1959.
A random sample of residents (representing farmers, part-time farmers, and non-farmers) of the fringe area surrounding Lansing, Michigan, were studied. In this study of the rural-urban fringe, scalogram analysis of integration and typologies based on direction, content, and depth

of identification were used. Distributions and typologies "suggest that the conclusions of investigators who described the fringe area as an 'institutional desert' cannot be accepted. Over 40% of the respondents exhibit high participation patterns and more than 90% may be classified as positively identified with the area.... It was ascertained that long-time residence, relative stability, rural and non-Lansing background, and commitment to the area are all associated with a high degree of within-area participation....It was found that definitions of the area as either rural or urban are affected by adjustments. Respondents who exhibit high degrees of integration, whose identifications with the area are based on friendship patterns and familiarity with it, and who had no prior choice for living in the area, define their place of residence as rural, rather than urban. "The data suggest that patterns of integration and identification do exist in the fringe and that these are influenced by the residential experiences of residents and by commitment to the area."

0545. Kuvlevsky, William P., and Pelham, John T. "Place of Residence Projections of Rural Youth: A Racial Comparison." Social Science Quarterly, (June, 1970), 166-176.

0546. Kuznets, Simon, and Thomas, Dorothy S. "Internal Migration and Economic Growth." Selected Studies of Migration Since World War II: Proceedings of the 34th Annual Conference of the Milbank Memorial Fund. New York: Milbank Memorial Fund, 1958. Pp. 196-211.
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This paper presents some general propositions on the relation between economic growth and internal migration. The data were primarily derived from Census reports. In the first part, Kuznets defines economic growth and outlines three relevant modern characteristics of this process: (1) A rise in per capita income and in population numbers; (2) high rates of growth of population, of economic product per capita, and of total economic product; and (3) high rates of growth in per capita national income, associated with rapid shifts in the industrial and related aspects of the productive structure of the economy. He then states the functions of internal migration in relation to the process of economic growth, and suggests further hypotheses and questions. In the second part, Thomas summarizes the nature of the framework and methodology of the University of Pennsylvania's study, "Population Redistribution and Economic Growth." Essentially, the study begins with the conception that economic growth and population redistribution are linked by a continuous chain of interdependent variables. It then proceeds to prepare and evaluate estimates of a number of these variables to provide a firm basis for empirical

analyses of interrelations, over time and among spatial units. The four major sections of the study are concerned with population redistribution, levels of income, labor force, and production.

0547. Kuznets, Simon, Miller, Ann Ratner, and Easterlin, Richard A. *Population Redistribution and Economic Growth of the U. S., 1870-1950.* 3 vols. Philadelphia: *The American Philosophical Society*, 1964.

0548. Ladinsky, J. "Occupational Determinants of Geographic Mobility among Professional Workers." *American Sociological Review*, 32 (April, 1967), 253-264.

0549. Lampman, Robert J. "Population Change and Poverty-Reduction, 1947-1975." Paper given at the West Virginia University Conference on 'Poverty Amidst Affluence,' Morgantown, West Virginia, May 3-7, 1965.

0550. Lancelot, W. H., and Morgan, Barton. *Iowa's Vanishing Farm Youth and Their Schools.* Bulletin P-81. Ames, Iowa: Iowa Agricultural Experiment Station, 1946.
The author suggests ways of improving educational opportunities in rural areas to help stem the migration of farm youth to urban centers, and presents changes in the farm population by counties, 1930-39, and probably future changes.

0551. Landis, J. R., and Stoetzer, L. "Exploratory Study of Middle-Class Migrant Families." *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 28 (February, 1966), 51-53.

0552. Landis, Paul H. "Educational Selectivity of Rural-Urban Migration and Its Bearing on Wage and Occupational Adjustments." *Rural Sociology*, 11 (1946), 218-232.
This article presents data on educational selectivity of rural-urban and urban-rural migration: it estimates the economic success of migrants using nonmigrants as controls; and it compares the occupational structure of migrants with that of nonmigrants. Data were collected in the state of Washington on four groups by sex: (1) rural youth who grew up and remained in rural areas; (2) rural youth who migrated to urban areas; (3) urban youth who stayed in urban areas; and (4) urban-reared youth who had migrated to rural areas. The sample size was 16,732. The first measure of selectivity was Age at Leaving School. Rural young men moving to urban areas were better educated than the stable rural group (55.7% remained in school to age 18 for the migrant group vs. 47.1%). However, the rural-urban migrants were less well-educated than the stable urban group. The urban-rural group was small and ranked slightly below the rural-urban group. The second measure used was Total Grades of

Schooling. The results obtained showed the above trends even more clearly. Significantly, three times as many young men and four times as many young women moved from rural to urban areas as vice versa. The third measure of selectivity used was Type of Schooling. Using the school breakdown of elementary, high school, and college, the results noted above were duplicated. Additionally, it was found that twice as many rural-urban migrants, both male and female, had some special training, such as vocational or business school, as the nonmigrant rural group. The time lag between completing school and getting a job was small for all groups, with no significant differences. It was smallest for rural nonmigrant males and urban-rural migrant females. Occupational success was measured by income. Rural-urban male migrants made an immediate income gain and progressed (the median years out of school for the sample was 5) to higher salaries than either of the nonmigrant groups. The only difference for women was that rural-urban migrants did not quite surpass urban nonmigrants. In terms of broad wage classifications, the migrating rural group had fewer in the lowest group and more in the highest group than either of the nonmigrant groups for both the first and current jobs. The urban-rural migrants had undue proportions at both extremes. For young women, the urban nonmigrants were slightly better off than the rural-urban migrants, but the other trends noted were the same as for males. The data seem to show that in spite of inferior schooling, rural youth migrating to urban areas have other qualities which enable them to achieve higher income levels than urban nonmigrants. This hierarchy in terms of occupational success (rural-urban migrants, urban nonmigrants, urban-rural migrants, and rural nonmigrants) was also found when the subjects were classified by occupational category of first job. In terms of per cent in professional positions, the rural-urban migrants were far ahead of rural nonmigrants but fell behind urban nonmigrants in the 1942 job. The author found that rural youth who migrate to urban areas excel both nonmigrant groups in earnings but cannot quite equal the urban nonmigrants in occupational status. The urban-rural migrants easily excel the rural nonmigrants in both status and income.

0553. Landis, Paul H. "Rural-Urban Migration and the Marriage Rate--An Hypothesis." American Sociological Review, 11 (2) (April, 1946), 155-158.
Results of a Washington survey indicate that among males and most females, the mobile group was the most married group, regardless of the direction of the movement and the character of the sex ratio in the new area of residence.

0554. Langendorf, Richard. "The Negro and the Metropolis." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1967.

0555. Lansing, John B. *The Propensity to Move.* Labor Mobility Publication No. 3. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1964.

0556. Lansing, John B., and Barth, Nancy. "The Cost of Geographic Mobility." *Agricultural Policy Review*, 6(2) (April-June, 1966), 13-15.

0557. Lansing, John B., and Barth, Nancy. *The Geographic Mobility of Labor: A Summary Report.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1964.

0558. Lansing, John B., and Morgan, James N. "The Effect of Geographical Mobility on Income." *Journal of Human Resources*, 2(4) (Fall, 1967), 449-460.
The reasons for geographic mobility are said to be primarily economic. Yet when the number of years of education is held constant, the average annual earnings of the geographically mobile are found to be no higher than those of the nonmobile. Comparing the income of the mobile with that of the nonmobile, certain types of mobility are found to lead to higher incomes. People who have left rural areas for urban areas, and the people who have left the Deep South now earn more on the average than those who remained. It does not follow, however, that people who have left low-income areas earn as much as those who have lived all their lives in high income areas. People who grew up in low-income areas may have received less and poorer education.

0559. Lansing, John B., and Mueller, Eva. "Geographic Mobility and the Labor Problem." *The Geographic Mobility of Labor.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, Survey Research Center, 1967. Pp. 263-332.
This section consists of three chapters: "Negro-White Differences in Geographic Mobility," "Geographic Mobility and Depressed Areas," and "Welfare, Aid and Assistance: Their Impact on Geographic Mobility." The first chapter points out that ties to a place or uneasiness about unfamiliar surroundings are barriers to mobility for the Negro. This is especially true when economic incentives to move are weak. Racial discrimination makes it more difficult to leave familiar surroundings; while knowing relatives or friends in a distant location helps overcome this, it may encourage moving to a place where jobs do not exist. In the second chapter, data indicate that the new loss of population due to migration is due more to low level of inmigration than to a

high level of outmigration from depressed areas. Yet migration into depressed areas is not negligible and is by no means exclusively motivated by noneconomic factors. Geographic mobility is an imperfect economic adjustment mechanism. Since it is the young, the well-educated and the skilled who outmigrate, the remaining population gradually shows a reduced mobility potential. Moving industry into depressed areas is not a promising alternative. A high aggregate demand--especially for blue collar workers--outside of depressed areas is a prerequisite for increasing the value of migration and thus helping depressed areas. Educational and vocational training are also greatly needed. The third chapter states that dependency on private or public assistance does not reduce geographic mobility. There is even a small positive mobility differential for aid recipients, but it is not statistically significant. The association between past receipt of public assistance and past low mobility reflects the effect of mobility on eligibility for assistance, and also the socioeconomic characteristics of public welfare cases.

0560. Lassiter, Ray L. "The Association of Income and Education for Males by Region, Race and Age." Southern Economic Journal, 32 (1965), 15-22.

0561. Lazarus, J., Locke, B. Z., and Thomas, Dorothy S. "Migration Differentials in Mental Disease." Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly, 41 (1963).

0562. Lecht, Leonard A. "The Supply of Farm Labor in the Early 1970's: An Overall View." Working Paper. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1966.

0563. Lee, Everett S. "Differentials in Internal Migration." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1952.

0564. Lee, Everett S. "Internal Migration and Population Redistribution in the United States." Population: The Vital Revolution. Edited by Ronald Freedman. New York: Anchor Books, 1964. Pp. 123-136.

0565. Lee, Everett S. "Measures of Migration in the Study of Population Redistribution in the United States, 1870-1950." Proceedings of the World Population Conference, 1954, Papers: Volume II. New York: United Nations, 1955.

0566. Lee, Everett S. "Migration Estimates." Population Redistribution and Economic Growth: U. S. 1870-1950. Vol. I. Methodological Considerations and Reference Tables.
* Philadelphia: The American Philosophical Society, 1957. The author presents results of an extensive study of U. S. migrants, utilizing data derived mostly from Census

reports. The study objectives were: (1) descriptions of procedures developed to convert masses of disparate and defective data from censuses and other administrative collections into sets of analysis-directed estimates; (2) evaluation of the validity and reliability of these estimates; and (3) the estimates themselves. The study contains estimates of net migration derived by the forward census survival method by age, sex, color or race, and nativity of whites for each state and each intercensal period from 1870 to 1950. There are special sections on: (1) spatial and temporal units; (2) estimating net migration from census age distributions; (3) estimating migration from state-of-birth data; (4) comparison of estimates of net migration by census survival and state-of-birth methods; and (5) rural-urban series (1870,1880, 1890, 1900, 1910, 1920, 1930 and 1940,1950).

0567. Lee, Everett S. "Negro Intelligence and Selective Migration: A Philadelphia Test of the Klineberg Hypothesis." American Sociological Review, 16 (April, 1961), 227-233.
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This study is an attempt to test Klineberg's hypothesis that there is a significant improvement in the intelligence test scores of Southern-born Negro children as the length of residence in Philadelphia increases. "There is a significant and continuous upward trend in the intelligence test ratings of Southern-born Negro children as their length of residence in Philadelphia increases."

0568. Lee, Everett S. "Socioeconomic and Migration Differentials in Mental Disease, New York State, 1949-1951." Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly, 41 (1963), 249-268.

0569. Lee, Everett S. "A Theory of Migration." Demography, 3(1) (1966), 47-57.

0570. Lee, Everett S., and Lee, Anne S. "Internal Migration Statistics for the United States." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 55 (1960), 646-697. This publication supplements statistics on internal migration in Historical Statistics of the United States Colonial Times to 1957. It includes data from Bureau of the Census and Department of Agriculture on farm-nonfarm migration, and discusses estimates by residual methods. A bibliography of official sources of migration statistics is appended.

0571. Lee, Everett S., and Price, Daniel O. Net Intercensal Migration, 1870-1940. 3 vols. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1953.

0572. Lee, Everett S., et al. Population Redistribution and Economic Growth: U. S. 1870-1950. Vol. I. Methodological Considerations and Reference Tables. Philadelphia: The American Philosophical Society, 1957.

0573. Leonard, Olen E., and Johnson, Helen W. Low-Income Families in the Spanish Surname Population of the Southwest. Agricultural Economic Report No. 112. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.
The geographical area considered in this study of Spanish surname people consists of Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas. The transition of this ethnic group from a primarily rural population a few decades ago to its present 80% urban character is given special attention. Mobility is considerably higher among these people than for the population of the U. S. as a whole. The high fertility rate results in a disproportionately larger percentage of persons under 15 years of age. This represents especially difficult problems for migratory workers seeking adequate housing for their families. In the rural populations, about 46% of the males work as farm laborers, but occupational mobility has improved among both rural and urban groups. In education, the general level of attainment is below national median, and the differential is most pronounced in the farm sectors. The tendency to remain Spanish-speaking creates an additional barrier to higher educational achievement, finding and holding jobs, and establishing wider social contacts in the society in which they live. Improved educational facilities and suitable job training offer the most promise for higher income and greater social and occupational mobility.

0574. Leslie, Gerald R., and Richardson, Arthur H. "Life-Cycle, Career Pattern, and the Decision to Move." American Sociological Review, 26 (December, 1961), 894-902.
This article seeks an explanation of urban residential mobility in terms of two contrasting approaches--life-cycle and career pattern. Rossi, in Why Families Move, found that the major characteristics that differentiated mobile from stable families were related to family life-cycle-- size, age of household head. He also found that mobile families expressed many complaints about their dwelling and neighborhood. The data come from a 50% random sample survey of a six year old urban subdivision of two and three bedroom single homes in Lafayette, Indiana. The authors stress that the model suggested in this paper needs to be tested in many different settings. Eight items were used to predict residential mobility: 1) age of household head, 2) household size, 3) tenure status (rent or own home), 4) years of formal education completed by household head, 5) resident's estimate of social class position compared to neighbors, 6) resident's estimate of prospects for upward social mobility, 7) residents attitude toward present dwelling, and 8) resident's attitude toward present neighbors.

0575. Leven, Charles L. "Population, Migration, and Regional Economic Development." Current Economic Comment, 21(4) (November, 1959), 31-42.

Probably the most important force pushing on population is the general shift from rural to urban areas stemming from the release of workers from agriculture. Superimposed on the rural-urban transition is the phenomenon of interregional migration, to a large extent a "search for the sun," to consume a commodity called "living in a pleasant climate." Finally, the third main current of movement in the population shuffle is suburbanization. There is some discussion about receiving and sending areas and geographical realignment. Leven says,"...it is important to discourage regional development programs which either result in a meaningless interregional transfer, making one area better and another worse off, or still worse, encourage migration of business establishments which prove detrimental to the firms themselves." "An attempt has been made to focus attention on the regional dimension of population growth and the problems of adjustment thereto. Through time, with developing technology, the economically optimum distribution of population changes. Concurrently, the actual distribution of population changes, too, as a result of regional variations in birth rates and death rates and interregional migration. The appropriate economic adjustment can be made in one of two ways: (1) further realignment of population or (2) geographical reallocation of production facilities. Both of these paths of adjustment involve costs. Thus, the optimum economic adjustment would be represented by that combination of labor and capital mobility producing the greatest excess of the resultant efficiency gains over the concomitant transfer costs. Another alternative is possible. Even for that adjustment which involves the maximum surplus of efficiency gains over economic transfer costs, the noneconomic disadvantages of increased mobility of either labor or non-labor resources may exceed or at least partially offset any net economic gains, thus partially or wholly damping the underlying economic pressures for interregional migration. Moreover, in a society with an expanding per capita real income, such noneconomic considerations can be expected to weigh more heavily in both individual and group preferences. Also, with an expanding technology and progressive improvements in transportation and communication the magnitude of the needed adjustment may well increase, although such a trend could be offset by a tendency toward greater uniformity in birth and death rates in different sections of the country. In any event, as the nation's real income grows and as the noneconomic costs of the necessary regional adjustment to an evolving technology also grow, the choice between economically optimum and less than optimum geographical allocation of human and capital resources can be expected to become a more challenging problem for our society."

0576. Levitan, Sar A. *Federal Aid to Depressed Areas: An Evaluation of the Area Redevelopment Administration.* Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1964.

0577. Lieberson, Stanley. *Ethnic Patterns in American Cities.* New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc., 1963.

0578. Lieberson, Stanley, and Fuguitt, Glenn V. "Negro-White Occupational Differences in the Absence of Discrimination." *American Journal of Sociology*, 73 (1967), 188-200.

0579. Liebhafsky, E. E. "Migration and the Labor Force: Prospects." *Monthly Labor Review*, 91(3) (March, 1968), 7-11. This article shows that whether the South will have an adequate labor force in 1975 depends primarily upon the rate of migration from the region. Three projections of the Southern labor force are presented, each of which is based on a different assumption of future net interstate migration. If no net interstate migration occurs (projection III), the 1975 Southern labor force will consist of about 24.2 million workers. Continuation of the 1950-1960 migration rates (projection I) will mean the labor force will grow to only 23.2 million; if net migration were to drop to zero by 1980 (projection II), about 23.8 million persons would be working or looking for work in the South in 1975. Projection III, if realized, would result in a Southern labor force consisting of the smallest number of whites and the largest number of Negroes. Projection I, in comparison to projection III, would result in a loss of 1.3 million Negroes and a gain of 250,000 white workers. Projection II, in comparison with projection I, would mean that the South in 1975 would have 153,000 more white workers and 414,000 more Negro workers. Rising levels of educational attainment and continuation of the population shift to urban areas are expected to cause total labor force participation rates of both races to be higher in 1975 than in 1960. The rates for white and Negro men are expected to decline, while the rates for women of both races are expected to rise. A larger proportion of white than of Negro men aged 14 and over is expected to engage in economic activity, but the labor force participation rate for Negro women is expected to continue to exceed the rate for white women. Maintenance of full employment in the nation's economy will result in increased labor force participation of Southern Negro men in the 14-to-24 and the 55 and over age groups who, in the face of continual failure to find jobs, become discouraged and withdraw from the labor force. The withdrawal phenomenon, in the South, is related to the shift of job opportunities from rural areas to urban areas. Increased educational attainment accompanied by a decrease in job discrimination should alter this, says the author.

0580. Lind, H. G. "Location by Guesswork." Journal of Transport Economics and Policy, 1(2) (May, 1967).

0581. * Lipset, Seymour Martin. "Social Mobility and Urbanization." Rural Sociology, 20 (September-December, 1955), 220-228.
The author presents results of a study of the principal wage earners in 935 households in Oakland, California. Thh relationship between geographical and occupational mobility was tested. "The findings indicate that the larger a person's community of orientation (the community in which he spent his teens), the more likely he has been upward mobile. This suggests a continuing pattern of social mobility in which migrants to metropolitan centers from rural areas or small urban communities take over the lower-status positions, while native urbanites move up on the occupational structure. Hypotheses are suggested to explain why large cities are more likely to be characterized by high rates of social mobility than other communities, and why natives of metropolitan centers are more prone to be upward-mobile than those originating in other parts of the country.

0582. Lipset, Seymour Martin, and Bendix, Reinhard. Social Mobility in Industrial Society. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1959.

0583. Litwak, Eugene. "Geographic Mobility and Extended Family Cohesion." American Sociological Review, 25 (June, 1960), 385-394.
The author takes issue with Parsons' hypothesis that the isolated nuclear family is the only type which is functional in democratic industrial society and presents a modified extended family that he believes can be maintained despite differential rates of geographic mobility. The author presents three propositions which are contrary to the argument that the extended family is not consistent with geographical mobility: (1) Individuals in a modified extended family grouping are in a better position to move because the family legitimizes such moves and provides economic, social and psychological support. (2) Extended family relations can be maintained over great distances because modern advances in communications

techniques have minimized the socially disruptive effects of geographic distance. (3) Financial difficulties of moving extended families in a bureaucratic industrialized society are minimized because family coalescence takes place when the family is at its peak earning capacity and when it is least likely to disrupt the industrial organization. From these follow the three hypotheses of the paper: (1) Modified extended families aid geographical mobility. (2) Extended family identification is maintained despite breaks in face-to-face contact. (3) Geographical coalescence takes place at peaks of earning power. The data used are from a survey of 920 white married women in Buffalo, N. Y. The author recognizes the white, young, middle-class, native-born bias of the study but says that it is useful because it would be the type most likely to support Parsons' hypotheses. The findings of the study which support the author's hypotheses are: (1) Mobility reduces extended family face-to-face contact. (2) Breaks in face-to-face contact do not reduce extended family identification. About the same percentage of persons with extended family, nuclear family, and non-family orientation were found in the groups with and without relatives in town. (3) Close identification with the extended family does not prevent nuclear families from moving away. (4) Bureaucratic career and extended family mobility: a) A higher percentage of those who perceived themselves on the upswing of their careers had no relatives in town than those at a medium point, and those at a medium point had fewer relatives in town than those at the peak. b) For those on the upswing, more of those without relatives in the city were extended family oriented than either non-family or nuclear family oriented. The opposite was true for those at a peak and without relatives in the city. c) Extended family oriented people on the upswing of their careers tended to move (on their last move) farther away from their families. The opposite was true for extended family oriented people at the peaks of their careers. (5) Bureaucratic versus non-bureaucratic careers: Since blue collar occupational mobility is based on seniority rather than promotional steps associated with geographical mobility, it was expected that few blue collar workers in all career stages would have no relatives in the city. This was found to be true. (6) Extended families provide emotional, social, and economic aid to movers. As secondary evidence, the author points out studies that show family relationships are fairly extensive today in middle-class, working class, Puerto Rican, Negro, and Italian families.

0584. Lively, Charles E., and Bright, Margaret L. The Rural Population Resources in Missouri. Research Bulletin 428. Columbia, Mo.: Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station, 1948.
This bulletin shows an analysis of changes and trends which affect both the size and quality of the rural population, and discusses the extent of migration from farms, 1920-30 and 1930-40, and the relation of the farm-reared population to the manpower requirements of agriculture.

0585. Loewenberg, J. Joseph. Nonwhite In-migrants and Manpower Problems in Philadelphia. Final Report submitted to the U. S. Department of Commerce, Division of Labor Manpower. Philadelphia and Washington, D. C.: Temple University and Government Printing Office, 1970.
This study deals with nonwhite inmigrants to Philadelphia and relates them to current manpower programs in the city. Three questions were investigated: (1) What is known about inmigrants to Philadelphia?; (2) What are the manpower and related needs of inmigrants?; and (3) What specific attention are manpower programs in Philadelphia giving to inmigrants? Answers to the first two questions are cited primarily from published sources, while material for the last question came from interviews with staff members of manpower programs. For 1940-65, a definite shift from net inmigration to natural increase explains the increasing number of nonwhites in the city. Data on inmigrants for the most recent period were compared with data on earlier inmigrants, outmigrants in the same period, and nonmigrants. Unlike white migrants, the majority of nonwhites migrating to Philadelphia in 1955-60 came from South Atlantic states. Taeuber and Taeuber's findings are cited, stating that the character of Negro migration to Northern cities has changed from the rural-to-urban pattern to one primarily of inter-urban moves. 1955-60 data show that of nonwhite inmigrants from the South, more than twice as many came from nonmetropolitan areas as from SMSA's. Age, education, occupation and employment status of the comparison groups are discussed. The author cites conflicting sources, some of whom claim "reason for move" is job-related and another who found in the late 1950's that 65% came because of the presence of friends and relatives. Although Taeuber and Taeuber (1965) are quoted as to the changing character of Negro migrants, the author points out that by 1965 still almost half of Negro inmigrants where from nonmetropolitan Southern areas. After an assessment of the literature, the author concludes that migration to Philadelphia may continue at its present rate. Push-pull factors involved

in migration are discussed; also considered are the lag in farm and off-farm employment opportunities for and the continued high birth rate of Southern blacks. Needs of newcomers in the city are in the areas of introduction to community services, education in urban shopping patterns and transportation systems, and psychological support. The introduction of such programs within the Manpower programs improved the rate of success of relocated workers considerably. Of the seven federally assisted public and private manpower programs evaluated, not one had available data on the number of inmigrants included in their client population. Most agency staff do not seem to differentiate the problems of local persons and those of inmigrants. While lack of resources is a problem of the agencies, interviews revealed that if these agencies had more money, they would not treat migrants any differently. Recommendations for change are given.

0586. Long, Erven J., and Dorner, Peter. "Excess Farm Population and the Loss of Agricultural Capital." Land Economics, 30(4) (November, 1954), 363-368.
The authors, using 1949 data, estimate capital drained out of agriculture in Tennessee because of the migration of surplus agricultural labor, and they consider family and community expenditures on the rearing of these migrants in nonfarm areas.

0587. Lonsdale, R. E. "Two North Carolina Community Patterns." Economic Geography, (42) (April, 1966), 114-138.

0588. Lowry, Ira S. Migration and Metropolitan Growth: Two Analytical Models. Los Angeles: University of California Press. 1966.
Lowry shows that (1) Migration into a metropolitan area is related to economic factors which vary between regions: the wage rate in the area receiving the migrant, the level of unemployment in the area, and the degree to which the area's population is dependent on military employment; and (2) "The greater the distance which separates two metropolitan areas, the smaller the likelihood that people from one metropolitan area will migrate to the other. The role of distance is presumably related to information and transportation costs as well as to the proximity of members of the migrant's family or social and ethnic group."

0589. Luebke, B. H. "Tennessee Farm Depopulation Continues: What Lies Ahead for Rural Communities?" Tennessee Farm and Home Science, 7 (July-September, 1953), 4-5.
The author presents a discussion of the causes and effects of farm population decreases. Between 1940 and

1950 the number of people on farms decreased by over 250,000, even though births exceeded deaths by almost the same amount.

0590. Luebke, B. H., and Hart, John F. "Migration from a Southern
* Appalachian Community." Land Economics, 34 (February, 1958), 44-53.
The authors give results from a study of present and former residents of the Chestnut Hill area (eastern edge of the Great Valley of East Tennessee) with migration experience. Information was gathered from 177 of them. An attempt was made to understand the mechanics of migration from the hills and the problems of peoples' adjustment to their new environments. The people of Chestnut Hill were adjusting the local economy to that of the nation by responding to the national labor market through migration. The traditional mountain yeomen culture made it difficult for the migrants to adjust to urban life.

0591. Lurie, Melvin, and Rayack, Elton. "Racial Differences in Migration and Job Search: A Case Study." Southern Economic Journal, (July, 1966), 90-92.
The authors present results of a study conducted in Middletown, Connecticut, labor market area in 1964, where over 40% of people are foreign-born or first generation Americans. The largest groups are Italian, Polish, and French-Canadian. A total of 250 home interviews were obtained, 150 from blacks and 100 from whites. A discussion is presented of the different origins of white and black inmigrants. The differences in the earlier white as opposed to the continuing black inmigration are: (1) Middletown could absorb unskilled labor about 1900; now, although the market is firm, it shows little prospect for major growth. (2) There is no native group like the padroni functioning for the Negro. (3) Barrier of color today is even greater than the barrier of language was 60 years ago. Responses to the question of why migrants came to Middletown revealed that the location of friends and relatives seems to have played a much stronger role in determining the precise geographical direction that migration took in the cases of both races who came from distant areas than migrants who came from cities in the nearby Northeast. Occupational distribution by race in 1960 in Middletown shows Negroes underrepresented in professional, managerial, white collar and skilled blue collar jobs and overrepresented in common labor and service classifications. Middletown is described as a white man's labor market. Also, it is a market where jobs and industries to some extent are stratified by national origin. Negroes are more likely to use public employment service and may not trust pri-

vate groups, unions and newspaper ads. The majority of workers had found their current jobs through direct applications or through relatives/friends. Of the remaining services used, Negroes were three times as frequently using public as private employment service, while whites used private services in five times the proportion as public service. Further discussions include controls for length of time in the labor market area and previous type of labor market. A section on policy proposals is presented.

0592. Lustig, Morton, and Reiner, Janet S. "Local Government and Poverty in Rural Areas." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 110-125.

0593. MacDonald, John S., and MacDonald, Leatrice D. "Chain Migration, Ethnic Neighborhood Formation and Social Networks." Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly, 42(1) (January, 1964), 82-97.
The authors define chain migration as that movement in which prospective migrants learn of opportunities, are provided with transportation, and have initial accommodation and employment arranged by means of primary social relationships with previous migrants. "The main purpose of this paper is to examine the bonds between successive Southern Italian immigrants in this period (1885-1914) and also some of the consequences of this social structure."

0594. MacDonald, John S., and MacDonald, Leatrice D. "Urbanization, Ethnic Groups, and Social Segmentation." Social Research, 29(4) (Winter, 1962), 433-448.

0595. MacDonald, L. D., and MacDonald, J. S. "Motives and Objectives of Migration and Preferences Toward Rural and Urban Life." Social Economic Studies, 17(4) (December, 1968), 417-434.

0596. MacGaffey, Wyatt. "The History of Negro Migrants in the Northern Sudan." Southern Journal of Anthropology, 17 (Summer, 1961), 178-197.

0597. Mack, Raymond. (ed.) The Changing South. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1970.

0598. MacLachlan, John M. "Recent Population Trends in the Southeast." Social Forces, 35(2) (December, 1956), 147-154.
The article deals with demographic trends in the Southeast in general, not broken down by race. Some discussion is broken into white-nonwhite categories, with the following conclusions presented about white-nonwhite migration: (1) If the 1950-54 estimates are correct,

the South will export 57% more net persons, two-thirds of which will be nonwhite, and (2) the effects of this will be felt mainly in the labor force group.

0599. MacLachlan, John M., and Floyd, Joe S. This Changing South. Gainesville, Fla.: University of Florida, 1956. Chapter 3, "The Racial Trend," and Chapter 4, "Migration and the Southern People" are especially informative. Chapter 3 conclusions: (1) Throughout the past century the Negro population increased more slowly in the region and more rapidly out of the region. Population outside the South was four times larger in 1950 than in 1900. This was the result of emigration. There was a 331.7% increase in the North, only a 25% one in the South. (2) Negro population outside the South is the largest growing ethnic segment. (3) Negro urbanization: since 1930 movement to cities in the South has become as important as movement out of the South. (4) The concentration of the nonwhite population is in metropolitan areas.

0600. Maddox, James G. "Private and Social Costs of the Movement of People Out of Agriculture." American Economic Review: Papers and Proceedings, 50 (May, 1960), 392-402, 413-418. The author states, "The aim here is to identify some of the costs of off-farm migration and to draw a few conclusions about their relevance to policy formulation. Attention is focused on three broad categories of costs: those which fall on the migrants themselves, those which fall on the communities to which they move, and those which fall on the communities from which they move." Of costs to farm people who move out of agriculture, cash costs are: outlays for transporting themselves and their material possessions from their farm residences to their new places of abode, and the added outlays for food and lodging which are incurred during the period between the time they leave the farm and the time they find a job and a place to live in their new nonfarm setting. Some migrants will also incur an opportunity cost represented by the loss of income which might have been earned in agriculture during the period of transition. Finally, many farm people who move away from home experience a subjective or psychic cost. The author's opinion about these are, "First, the opportunity cost is of such minor importance that it can be ignored. Second, the cash costs of transportation are of minor significance. Third, the costs of food and lodging during the transition period, above the level of such costs on the farm, are not of great importance, provided the transition period between farm and nonfarm employment is not unduly long. Fourth, the subjective or psychic costs, though difficult to define and measure, have both personal and social implications which cannot safely be ignored.... I conclude that many farm people can travel as far as five hundred miles from their homes, take ten days to find a nonfarm job, and wait a week for their first pay check after they start to work, with a nest-egg of no more than $100 per person. In actual practice, I believe that many people make the shift and expend a lesser amount." He continues, "The policy implications (for the problem of time spent looking for a job) are that attention needs to be focused on creating an effective interregional employment service and on devising ways and means of aiding farm people to quickly find suitable living facilities when they move to urban areas." He states that policies for lessening the negative psychic impact of the move could be accomplished in part through enlarged educational and cultural opportunities for farm people. In some of the most isolated rural areas a combined program of family counseling, labor recruitment, and vocational training for nonfarm work is clearly needed. "The farm families, educational institutions, and business firms that are left behind in the areas from which out-migration occurs bear [illegible] heavy share of the total costs associated with the movement of people out of agriculture. In those communities in which off-farm migration is limited mainly to maturing young people, the principal costs associated with it are those of rearing and educating children who move away from their farm homes about the time they reach a productive age. The costs are much more extensive, however, in areas where farming is virtually abandoned. In such areas total income will usually decline and, as a result, the capital values of fixed assets, both public and private, will decrease; the per capita costs of maintaining essentail public services for the few remaining residents will rise; and many local businesses will go bankrupt or be forced to move to other areas." "Extensive public aid is needed in many areas where off-farm migration is heavy. Capital and entrepreneurship, as well as labor, are drained away with the result that large areas stagnate and remain dormant. The changes in land ownership and leasing that are necessary for new combinations of resources and a new inflow of capital take place slowly. There is need for public programs which will speed up the process. Some people not only should be aided to leave agriculture but those who remain behind should be assisted to enlarge their farms and shift to new types of farming." "When inmigration is rapid and relatively large, it is likely to have several undesirable results. Public expenditures for schools, police protection, and similar governmental services will probably expand more rapidly than tax revenues and will still be lower relative to need than before the in-migration became significant. As a result the quality of public services will decline. In many cases, the average educational and cultural level of the urban population will be lowered because of the influx of poorly educated people from rural areas." "The places in which both social and private costs of population shifts are most pronounced are in and around large metropolitan centers, while, at the same time, many urbanites are shifting to the suburbs. Mounting social costs of various types result from the distribution of population which is being brought about by the two streams of migration. One such result, for instance, is a rapid growth of congested city slums in the old residential areas of many large cities. There is also a vast utilization of capital for houses, shopping centers, streets, schools, and related facilities in the suburban areas, which tends to keep capital expensive for all sectors of the economy. Likewise, there is an inordinate amount of travel and waste of time in going to and from the daily job as a result of the great distances between places of residence and places of work." "One of the heavy costs of the present pattern of off-farm migration is the continued concentration of low-income, farm-reared people in the congested slums of large cities. The resulting psychic costs to the individuals involved must be extremely high. It is a way of life which is completely foreign to their past experiences, and commonly results in high rates of crime, juvenile delinquency and absenteeism from jobs. These in turn result in heavy public expenditures for police protection and welfare activities."

0601. Maddox, James G. "Tar Heel Farmers Pay When Youth Leave
* Farms." Research and Farming, 18 (Spring, 1960), 11. The author focuses on youths aged 10 to 20 who left North Carolina farms from 1950-1960. The study was aimed at finding out the cost of young people leaving the farm, using Census data. "North Carolina's farm families are bearing the cost of one of the adjustments now taking place in our agricultural economy...the cost of the young people leaving the farm. The incomes which the youth will earn and spend will benefit the urban areas....There are at least two ways in which this uneven distribution of gains and losses could be lessened. One way would be through financial aid to education. Another would be to expand industry into areas nearer the supply of rural labor."

0602. Madsen, William. *Mexican-Americans of South Texas.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

0603. Mahoney, Bette Silver. "The Case for Migration." *New Generation*, 50 (Summer, 1968), 6, 9-10.
Ms. Mahoney states that some people wish to stem rural-urban migration by developing new economic opportunities in rural areas, which fact would also aid the rural poor. Such views involve the assumptions: 1) recent rural (particularly Southern) migration is a major factor contributing to urban problems; 2) the poor are better off in rural areas; 3) rural problems can always be solved by either economic development or migration; and 4) economic opportunities must be provided by the economic development of rural areas. However, the author presents support for the following: 1) the effect of migration upon urban problems is not major--the typical white or Negro inmigrant in Northern cities is from another urban area, and new migrants typically do not form a large percentage of a city's Negro population and do not concentrate in a single sector of the city; 2) the poor are not necessarily better off in rural areas; 3) rural poverty cannot be overcome simply either by economic development or migration; and 4) migration may be a cheaper way of providing economic opportunity for poor people than the economic development of rural areas. Therefore, the author recommends the provision of: 1) information on job vacancies and housing opportunities to the disadvantaged in their own regions and in other areas of the country; 2) expanded programs of human development--with education, training, health--within the rural areas to increase the capabilities of the individuals to take advantage of the opportunities in their own regions and in other areas of the country; 3)"migrant reception centers" in the cities to offer the full range of supportive services required to introduce and integrate migrants to urban environment; 4) relocation assistance in which tangible incentives in the form of moving allowances and lump-sum resettlement payments will reward the migrant for his willingness to move to an area where suitable employment is available; and 5) an income maintenance system, like the negative income tax, which would prevent starvation and the worst aspects of poverty for those who are not interested in economic progress at the cost of moving.

0604. Mahoney, Thomas A. "Exploratory Study of Factors Influencing Workers' Adjustments in Relocation." Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Industrial Relations Center, 1966. (Mimeographed.)

0605. Maitland, Sheridan T., and Knebel, Stanley M. "Rural to Urban Transition." Monthly Labor Review, 91 (June, 1968), 28-32.
The author recommends various approaches to the problem of helping rural migrants adjust to urban life.

0606. Malzberg, B., and Lee, Everett S. Migration and Mental Disease. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1956.

0607. Mangalam, J. J. Human Migration: A Guide to Migration Literature in English, 1955-1962. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky Press, 1968.

0608. Mangalam, J. J. "A Reconsideration of the Notion of Adjustment: An Exploration." Paper presented at the Southern Agricultural Workers Conference, 1962. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Department of Sociology, 1962. (Mimeographed.)

0609. Manis, Jerome G. "Agricultural Migration and Population
* Prediction." Rural Sociology, 24 (March, 1959), 29-34.
The author discusses migrants into Van Buren County, Michigan, in the summer of 1957, based on 417 interviews. General characteristics of migrant workers were sought. These migrants were primarily agricultural workers before migration. June was the month of most intensive migration. Over 50% came directly from their home states. One in six stopped in other states before working in Michigan. Attitudes regarding the desire to stay or leave were about equally divided. It was found that the migrant is not a wanderer or a hobo type, but rather half are work seekers, the others are settlers.

0610. Marsh, Robert C. "Negro-White Differences in Geographic Mobility." Social Security Bulletin, (May, 1967), 8-19.
This article is based on research performed at the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center in 1966. Interviews for the study were conducted in 1962-63 with male heads of households or their wives on a random basis. The sample included 3570 white, 350 Negro, and 50 other nonwhite respondents. A "move" was defined as a change of labor-market area residence. It is stated that Negroes continue to lag behind whites in both income and rate of employment, and, recently, have displayed an increasingly low propensity to move geographically. It is stated that many of the moves that Negroes do make are misdirected from an economic standpoint. In a section on racial disparities in geographic movement, the author discusses migratory patterns, recent differences, and the differential impact of the rural-urban shift. In the section on the causes of lower Negro mobility, the author cites the influence of demographic

factors and Negro-white social-psychological differences. Two interesting findings were that research showed no evidence for the population as a whole or for racial groups that lack of financial reserves reduces geographic mobility significantly, and that dependence on some form of public assistance was also shown to have little or no effect on mobility. In reviewing the findings, the Survey Research Center concluded that emotional or family ties to a place and uneasiness about unfamiliar surroundings are the principal barriers to Negro mobility, particularly when economic incentives to move are weak. The general reluctance to move away from relatives and friends was traced to the discrimination problem. The migration of Negroes off Southern farms to Northern cities was found to be the result of twin pressures, both of them strong--the push of rapidly declining opportunities in Southern agriculture and the pull of sometimes ephemeral industrial opportunities in the North. Because their training does not qualify them for the better jobs that often motivate their moving, large numbers of Negroes now find themselves eking out a bare existence in urban ghettos. In view of these factors, researchers concluded that the geographic mobility of the Negro population will remain below that of the white unless (1) the demand for unskilled labor is more insistent than it was during the late 1950's and the early 1960's, (2) racial discrimination is reduced, and (3)the educational and skill level of the Negro population become more comparable to that of the white population. The researchers suggest that direct steps be taken to reduce the dependence of potential Negro migrants on relatives and friends in connection with the migration and job-seeking processes. Specifically, the Survey Research Center calls for the establishment of a single office, which could provide information about job openings and housing, aid in filling out job applications, and furnish information about community and religious organizations that would welcome the newcomer. The arrangement of transportation for job-hunting trips within the new labor-market area and temporary housing for the Negro migrant while he is seeking work are also recommended as important steps in a successful resettlement program. In implementing such a program, close cooperation would be sought between public agencies and Negro community organizations.

0611. Marshall, Douglas G. "Better Farms, Fewer Boys and Girls." *Minnesota Farm and Home Science*, 4(2) (February, 1947), 4-6.
The author expresses the view that Minnesota will not have an excess farm population after 1960. Replacement

ratios indicate that in the future, areas of good farming will be competing with urban places for migrants from poorer farming areas.

0612. Marshall, Douglas G. Population Characteristics, Resources, and Prospects in the North Central Region. Bulletin 209. Madison, Wisc.: Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station, 1959.
* The author discusses the North Central Region of U. S. (East North Central and West North Central states as defined by the Bureau of the Census, plus Kentucky). Most data are derived from Census reports, and the bulletin includes a descriptive report on population changes, including those resulting from migration. Migration's "relative importance in determining demographic changes often outweighs the vital processes of fertility and mortality, especially in modern times. The streams of migration in the North Central Region might be characterized in five groups: (a) movement from farms of families, (b) movement of youth from farms, (c) movement of hired farm workers and their families, (d) movement of persons and families from small towns and cities to large urban centers, and (e) movement to rural areas of urban employed persons."

0613. Marshall, Douglas G. Wisconsin's Population: Changes and Prospects. Research Bulletin 194 (Rev.). Madison, Wisc.: Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station, 1959.
* The author presents a general analysis of the changes in population in Wisconsin from 1900-1955 using Census data. "Migration is a selective factor. The young unmarried people who have completed their high school education tend to be moving from the farm into the small town and city, and particularly into the city. Young married people are moving into the suburbs. In addition, the older people, those returning from agriculture, are moving, but tend to move into the small town. This expansion of the city and its suburbs and the small town population probably will continue. The impact of migration will also be felt generally on the age and sex distribution. There will tend to be more males than females in the farm population, more females in the towns and cities."

0614. Marshall, Douglas G., and Kelley, John D. Changes in Minnesota's Population by Counties--Natural Increase and Net Migration. St. Paul, Minn.: University of Minnesota, Department of Agriculture, 1952.
This publication includes a county table showing rural migration for 1940-1950, and a discussion of rural population loss or gain due to migration.

0615. Martin, Joe Allen. "The Impact of Industrialization upon
* Agriculture: A Study of Off-Farm Migration and Agricultural Development in Weakley County, Tennessee." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1955.
One hundred eighty-one farm operators in Weakley County, Tennessee, were interviewed in 1951. "The objectives of this study are (1) to reveal some of the social and economic characteristics of off-farm migration, and (2) to reveal some of the effects of a reduction in labor supply upon resource use on farms in Tennessee and the Southeast generally." "The following characteristics of off-farm migration were revealed in the study: (1) migration is highly selective of the younger age groups in the population; (2) people in the tenure status of hired labor and sharecropper are moving off-farm faster than other tenure groups; (3) prior to World War II the better educated tended to be selected for movement out; in the period from 1946 to 1951 the level of education was not a significant factor in migration; (4) information regarding nonfarm employment in distant cities is provided to farm people almost exclusively by members of the family of friends from the community who had moved to the distant cities; (5) a significantly larger proportion of the migrants in the young age group (17-28 years) were married than of the nonmigrant population; (6) a negative correlation was found between acres of crop and pasture land per unit of labor and off-farm migration; and (7) as employment of labor on farms increased, off-farm movement declined."

0616. Martin, Joe Allen. "Off-Farm Migration and a Changing Agriculture in Tennessee." Tennessee Farm and Home Science Progress Report, (24) (October-December, 1957), 10-11.

0617. Martin, Joe Allen. Off-Farm Migration: Some of Its Characteristics and Effects upon Weakley City, Tennessee. Bulletin 290. N.p.: Tennessee Agricultural Experiment Station, 1958.

0618. Martin, L. R. "Relevant Alternatives in Resolving the Rural Poverty Problem." Journal of Farm Economics, 46 (May, 1964), 418-428.

0619. Martin, Walter T. "Some Socio-Psychological Aspects of Adjustment to Residence Location in the Rural-Urban Fringe." American Sociological Review, 18 (June, 1953), 248-253.

0620. Martinson, Floyd M. "Personal Adjustment and Rural-Urban Migration." Rural Sociology, 20 (June, 1955), 102-110. The author states the hypothesis that there are aspects of personal adjustment which are related to, and perhaps causative of, migration from rural communities. The sample population consists of 247 matched pairs of rural Minnesota high school graduates. Data relating to adjustment include (1) scores on the Adjustment Inventory (Bell), (2) scores on the Kuder Preference Record, (3) high school grades, and (4) records of extra-curricular participation. Factors known to be related to migration were controlled through individual paired matching on the control factors. Control variables were age, sex, place of residence (town or farm), size and location of community, year of graduation, and socioeconomic status (father's occupation). Amount of education was automatically controlled by selection of the population sample. The study group consisted of four subgroups of the 247 pairs: (1) nonmigrant farm boys-migrant farm boys; (2) nonmigrant nonfarm boys-migrant nonfarm boys; (3) nonmigrant farm girls-migrant farm girls, and (4) nonmigrant nonfarm girls-migrant nonfarm girls. Significant differences found were: (1)Migrant nonfarm girls appear to be significantly more aggressive socially than nonmigrant nonfarm girls; (2) Migrant farm girls appear to be significantly more aggressive socially than nonmigrant farm girls; (3) Migrant farm girls had participated in a higher mean number of extra-curricular activities than the nonmigrant farm girls; (4) Nonmigrant farm girls had a higher clerical interest score than migrant farm girls; (5) Migrant nonfarm boys took part in a significantly greater number of extra-curricular activities than nonmigrant nonfarm boys while in high school; (6) Migrant nonfarm boys indicated a greater freedom from nervous symptoms and better emotional adjustment while in high school than the nonmigrant farm boys; (7) Migrant nonfarm boys had significantly better grades and had significantly higher computational and scientific interest scores than the nonmigrant nonfarm boys; (8) Nonmigrant nonfarm boys had higher mechanical interest scores than the migrant nonfarm boys; (9) Nonmigrant nonfarm boys became laborers, construction workers, store clerks, mechanics, and farm workers after graduation, while 85% of migrant nonfarm boys attended school after migrating; (10) There were more statistically significant differences between migrant-nonmigrant farm boys than among any of the other three groups; (11) There appears to be a pattern of better adjustment to home community in all cases for the nonmigrants, in that they report stronger feelings of belonging and better adjustment to family, community, and the prevailing social standards; and (12) The migrating students were consistently more aggressive socially, had consistently higher grades and reported greater interest in scientific and literary pursuits. Migrants seem to be less well adjusted to family and community and better adjusted to school, 'a symbol of what the world outside the local rural community has to offer.' " The author concludes, "In general, the results indicate that social aggressiveness was an important factor in the complex of influences in the migration of girls, while academic achievement in high school and urban-oriented interests were more important in the complex of factors resulting in the migration of boys."

0621. Martinson, Floyd M. "Some Personality Adjustment Differences of Rural Nonmigrants and Migrants." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1953.

0622. Maslowski, James J. "North Carolina Migration, 1870-1950." Research Previews, 2(2) (March, 1954), 1-4.

0623. Mason, Marie, and Marsh, C. Paul. Migration within Kentucky, 1935-40. Bulletin 620. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1954. Special Census tabulations of subregional migration within Kentucky suggest that although there is a wide variation between regions in the mobility of the various occupational groups, the professional and semi-professional persons seem to be the most mobile, while farmers are among the most stable.

0624. Masters, Stanley H. Are Black Migrants from the South to the Northern Cities Worse Off than Blacks Already There? Madison, Wisc.: University of Wisconsin, Institute for Research on Poverty, 1970.

0625. Masters, Stanley H. A Study of Socioeconomic Mobility among Urban Negroes. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 99-4790. New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers, The State University, 1970.

0626. Mauldin, W. Parker. "Selective Migration from Small Towns." American Sociological Review, 5 (1940), 748-766.

0627. Mayer, H. M. "Current and Prospective Population Trends." Appraisal Journal, 23 (April, 1955), 212-224.

0628. Mayo, Selz C. "Is the Farmer Going to Town?" Research and Farming, 11(1) (Summer, 1952), 12-13. The author shows that between 1940 and 1950 the farm population decreased in all but three counties in North Carolina. Counties of the Tidewater area showed the greatest relative loss in farm population, while counties of the Coastal Plain area lost least during the decade.

0629. Mayo, Selz C. The Young, the Old, and the Mature: A Study

of the Significance of the Changing Age and Sex Composition of the Rural Population. Bulletin 365. Raleigh, N. C.: North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station, 1949.
The author presents an analysis of the age and sex structure, color, fertility, and dependency of North Carolina's farm and rural-nonfarm populations and the relation of migration to these characteristics.

0630. Mazek, Warren. "The Efficiency of Labor Migration with Special Emphasis on Depressed Areas." Working Paper CUR 2. St. Louis, Mo.: Washington University, Institute for Urban and Regional Studies, 1966.

0631. Mazek, Warren. "Unemployment and the Efficacy of Migration: The Case of Laborers." Journal of Regional Science, 9(1) (April, 1969), 101-107.

0632. McDonald, Stephen L. "Farm Out-Migration as an Integrative
* Adjustment to Economic Growth." Social Forces, 34 (December, 1955), 119-128.
The author presents results of a study of farm families in the U. S. The aim was to restate a broad theoretical approach to agricultural problems in their historical setting. A special burden of adjustment to national economic growth rests upon farm people, with depressing effects upon their average incomes. With every genuine "integrative adjustment" the problem of further adjustments will be reduced, as the size of farm population declines, and the spatio-cultural barrier dwindles.

0633. McDonald, Stephen L. "On the South's Recent Economic Development." Southern Economic Journal, 28 (July, 1961), 30-40.

0634. McDonaugh, T. J. "United States Regional Economic Policy." Review of Social Economics, 24(1) (March, 1966), 73-81.

0635. McKee, Vernon C., and Day, Lee M. "Measuring the Effect of U. S. Department of Agriculture Programs on Income Distribution." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 506-521.
This paper examines the effects of selected USDA programs on the income distribution of farmers and the general public. The results indicate that most of the farm programs tended to reduce the inequality of farm income. The apparent exceptions are (1) 1963 wheat diversion payments, (2) wheat loans in 1960, 1963 and 1966, (3) 1966 feed grain, (4) price loans in 1960 and 1963, and (5) wool payments in 1960, 1963, and 1966. The nonfarm programs tended to reduce the interstate inequality in

personal income without exception. The authors state that a more rigorous analysis was not possible because data were not available.

0636. McMahan, C. A. "Selectivity in Rural to Urban Migration." Sociology of Urban Life. Edited by T. Lynn Smith and C. A. McMahan. New York: Dryden Press, 1951. Pp. 334-340.

0637. McMillan, Robert T. "Comparative Residence and Occupational Statuses of Certain Rural Adults Who Were Children in Oklahoma." Oklahoma Academy of Science Proceedings, 1945, 26 (1946), 47-48.
The author presents results of a study of migrant white adults who in childhood were members of selected rural families in southeastern and southwestern Oklahoma. Results suggest that the open country holds its native population to a greater degree than the village.

0638. McNamara, Robert. " A Design for Study of Urban Adjustment of Rural Migrants in St. Louis." Rural Sociology in a Changing Society. Proceedings of the North Central Rural Sociological Committee (NCR-5) Seminar, Columbus, Ohio, November, 1959. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, Ohio Agricultural Extension Service, 1959. Pp. 49-60.

0639. McNamara, Robert. "Population Change Poses Problems in Supplying Adequate Health Service." Journal of Osteopathy, (April, 1955), 9-14.
This article includes a section on streams of migration that account for some of the changes in Missouri's rural and farm populations between 1940 and 1950.

0640. McNamara, Robert, New, Peter, and Pappenfort, Donald. Rural-
* Urban Population Change and Migration in Missouri, 1940-1950. Bulletin 620. Columbia, Mo.: Missouri Agricultural Experiment Station, 1954.
The authors show population change and its components by economic areas and counties, and discuss the agricultural factors in migration. Movement away from farms of entire farm-operator families that were not replaced, movement of young adults and wage workers from farms, and movement of individuals and families from small villages to urban centers were among several streams of migration to cities that account for rural population changes.

0641. McQueen, Albert James. " A Study of Anomie among Lower
* Class Negro Migrants." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1959.
This study was of 75 male Negro migrants, aged 20-50, to urban Ypsilanti, Michigan, during 1940-1957. The study focused on adjustment of Negro migrants to an

urban community, assumed that alienation, apprehension, and purposelessness would be high among migrants who experienced trouble in the areas of family and occupation. The most alienated and apprehensive persons were generally unsettled and dissatisfied with their situation in the community. These were 20-30 year olds, veterans, late arrivals, non-voters, non-church goers, and persons knowing little about the community. "Higher income respondents tended to be the least alienated, apprehensive, and purposeless as did those persons who thought their jobs were worthwhile and important. Service workers were less apprehensive than unionized laborers about job security, but were more alienated."

0642. Meier, Richard L. "Policies for Planning Rural-Urban Migration." Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 395-404.

0643. Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. "A Decade of Internal Migration." Statistical Bulletin, 31(5) (May, 1950), 5-7.

0644. Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. "Recent Movement to Large Population Centers." Statistical Bulletin, 33(2) (February, 1952), 7-10.

0645. Michalopoulos, C. "Labor Migration and Optimum Population." Kyklas, 21(1) (1968), 130-142.

0646. Mickens, Alvin. Manpower Perspectives for Urban Redevelopment. New York: New York University, Graduate School of Social Work, Center for the Study of Employed Youth, 1967.
The first section of this study stresses the centrality of employment and manpower problems in an overall approach to urban blight and poverty, and raises some questions about the effectiveness of certain multi-intervention strategies in light of job dispersal to fringe areas. Section II reviews relevant data on conflicting patterns in urban migration and job decentralization in metropolitan areas. Section III examines various urban policy responses and feasible options posed by the growing imbalances in migration and jobs, and examines the effect of barriers in transportation and housing market segregation of job opportunities for the ghetto population. Section IV considers the record and the potential of the urban renewal program on community employment. Section V delineates tentative suggestions for isolating specific components in Model Cities proposals, which, coordinated with certain other manpower related projects, could serve to heighten the mobility and adaptation of the ghetto labor force throughout the metropolitan area.

0647. Micklin, Michael T. "A Selected Bibliography of Periodical Literature Dealing with Internal Migration, 1900-1961." Austin, Tex.: University of Texas, Institute of Latin American Studies, 1964. (Mimeographed.)

0648. Milbank Memorial Fund. Postwar Problems of Migration. Papers presented at the Round Table on Population Problems, 1946 Conference of the Milbank Memorial Fund, October 29-30, 1946. New York: Milbank Memorial Fund, 1947.

0649. Milbank Memorial Fund. Selected Studies of Migration Since World War II: Proceedings of the 34th Annual Conference of the Milbank Memorial Fund. Part III. New York: Milbank Memorial Fund, 1957.

0650. Miller, Ann R. "Migration Differentials in Labor Force Participation: United States, 1960." Demography, 3(1) (1966), 58-67.

0651. Miller, Ann R. "The Migration of Employed Persons to and from Metropolitan Areas of the United States." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 62(320) (December 1967), 1418-1432.

0652. Miller, Ann R. Net Intercensal Migration to Large Urban Areas of the United States. Analytical and Technical Reports No. 4. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, Population Studies Center, 1964.

0653. Milne, N. Dan. "Toward an Improved Labor Relocation Program: Evaluating the Foreign and Domestic Experience." Discussion Paper No. 13. Program on the Role of Growth Centers in Regional Economic Development. Austin, Tex.: University of Texas, Center for Economic Development, 1970. (Mimeographed.)

0654. Montana. Agricultural Experiment Station. Department of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology. Migration of Farm Families to Town. Bozeman, Mont.: Montana Agricultural Experiment Station, 194_.

0655. Morgan, James N., et al. Income and Welfare in the United States. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962.

0656. Morgan, Julian D. Some Controlling Forces in Kansas Population Movements. Lawrence, Kan.: University of Kansas, School of Business, 1953.

0657. Morril, L., and Pitts, F. K. "Marriage, Migration and the Mean Information Field." Association of American Geographers Annals, 57 (June, 1967), 401-422.

0658. Morrill, R. L. "The Distribution of Migration Distances." Regional Science Association Papers and Proceedings, 11 (1963), 75-84.

0659. Morrison, Peter A. "Duration of Residence and Prospective Migration: The Evaluation of a Stochastic Model." Demography, 4 (1967), 553-561.

0660. Morrison, Peter A. "Duration of Residence and Prospective Migration." Dissertation Abstracts, 28(8-A) (1968), 3275.

0661. Morrison, Peter A. "Implications of Residence Histories for the Design of Migration Models." Paper presented at the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Conference on Migration Histories, Washington, D. C., February 5-6, 1970. (Typewritten.)

0662. Morrison, Peter A. The Rationale for a Policy on Population Redistribution. Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, 1970.
Morrison says that in the U. S. the population crisis is defined as one of maldistribution in space, rather than one of tendencies to reproduce. While several major figures have endorsed the idea of an urban growth policy, there is some shying away from an actual policy on population distribution. Thus, we have "hidden" distribution policies. The existing policy vacuum is likely to invite more of the same, especially if there is massive commitment to new cities. Four issues explored in this paper are: (1) Should a population's arrangement in space be an issue of broad public concern?; (2) Would policies intrude unavoidably on individual's freedom to move or reside where they choose?; (3) What aspects of population distribution are appropriate targets of policy?; and (4) What instrumental options can be identified? The conclusion is that a policy to promote long-range distribution objectives would not have to sponsor movement and resettlement directly. The momentum of existing migratory flows, it is stated, is already a massive potential resource for shifting natural increase and realigning distribution. Two categories of policy instruments for steering migratory flow are suggested. One group should focus on promoting active labor demand at selected growth centers to attract migration-prone segments of the population. The other should intervene in the behavioral process of choosing destinations, which tends to be heavily dependent on presence of friends and relatives.

0663. Morrison, Peter A. Unresolved Questions about Population Distribution Policy: An Agenda for Further Research. Santa Monica, Calif.: Rand Corporation, 1971.

0664. Moyes, Earl L. "Attitudes and Plans of Selected Rural and Urban Students in Idaho to Migrate upon Graduation from High School." Unpublished master's thesis, Utah State University, 1957.

The study was conducted in rural high schools of Ririe, Roberts, and Rigsby in Jefferson County, Idaho, and the urban high school at Idaho Falls in Bonneville County among seniors for the school year 1955-1956. Total rural sample was 132; total urban sample was 133. I. Q. tests or the Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Test were used, as was the California Test of Personality. When asked where they thought circumstances would force them to live in order to pursue their life's work, a larger percent of urban than rural students felt they would stay in their present communities. However, a larger percent of the urban than rural group felt they would have to leave Idaho. Thus, rural dwellers "see more of a future for themselves somewhere within Idaho than does the urban group." If they were free to choose place of residence, a larger proportion of urban than rural group preferred to stay in their present communities. Again, though, a higher proportion of urban than rural people wanted to leave the state. Urban students were more likely to choose professional and technical work, and the rural group was more likely to choose farming, ranching, forestry. Also important was the fact that three times as many rural as urban students were undecided or had no choice of occupation. When asked if they felt their occupational choices would allow them to remain in their present communities, three times as many urban as rural students thought not. A much higher proportion of urban than rural students did not plan to attend college. But of those planning to go to college, the rural student was more likely to choose a school closer to home than the urban student. As would be expected, proportionately more urban than rural students came from high mobility families. However, the large majority of both groups came from low mobility families. Of students in families of one or two children, more urban than rural ones planned to move, whereas the reverse was found among those in families of three or more children. When asked if they thought they would have to leave home community in order to support themselves, a much higher porportion of urban than rural students felt they would not have to leave. Also, twice as many rural as urban students didn't know. Attitude toward present place of residence was a factor influencing rural students' plans to migrate, while it was not important for urban students. Economic status of family was important for the rural students' intentions to migrate but not for the urban ones. Of all students scoring below average on I. Q. tests, a larger proportion of rural than urban students plan to move. Family relations was found to be a factor influencing intent to migrate only for the urban sample. Personal and social adjustment scores had no relationship to intent to migrate.

0665. Moynihan, Daniel P. "The Crisis in Welfare." The Public Interest, (March, 1968), 3-29. Five general points are made. (1) The rising incidence of dependency in the U. S. has not been distributed evenly across the full spectrum of welfare categories. OAA has shown a steady decline, while AFDC has become the most expensive federal welfare program. (2) The nation is not likely to do much to change the existing welfare system, although it can be improved, because such a change would affect not only the distribution of wealth but also of power. (3) The political leaders of the nation have "more or less" consistently avoided any serious involvement with the problems of welfare. (4) The period of nonpolitical professional direction appears to be coming to an end. (5) In general, the proposals being made for improving the welfare system would, at the very least, have the effect of enlarging it rather than utterly transforming it. Discussions follow on the idea of the family allowance.

0666. Moynihan, Daniel P. The Negro Family: The Case for National Action. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.

0667. Moynihan, Daniel P. (ed.) On Understanding Poverty: Perspectives from the Social Sciences. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1969.

0668. Mueller, Eva. Migration into and out of Depressed Areas. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1964. This special report examines the contributions that migration can make to the solution of the depressed area problem, and asks two basic questions: what is the magnitude of migration and what are the characteristics of the migrant population? These questions seek to discover whether or not the migrant population represents a true cross-section of the work force in any area or whether it is skewed toward the skilled or the unskilled. The study also deals with ways that economic incentives affect migration. It is based on three series of interviews with cross-sections of families conducted between August, 1962, and November, 1963, in 74 areas across the country. The findings which present a comprehensive profile of migration are summarized in 12 charts which give a picture of migration since 1950. Although redistribution of the labor force through internal migration does occur to some extent, it fulfills its function as an economic adjustment mechanism in an imperfect manner. This is well illustrated as the very existence of depressed areas.

Most net loss of population in depressed areas is due to low inmigration rather than to high outmigration. Yet there is considerable migration into depressed areas. This underlies the fact that migration is not motivated by purely economic factors. Economic incentives appear to be more influential in directing the flow of inmigration than in determining the level of outmigration. One strong factor mitigating the economic influence on migration is imperfect information on the labor market which tends to blunt economic incentives to migrate out of depressed areas. The increasing proportion of old people left in depressed areas, the low educational level, the low income levels all act to discourage outmigration. Even in cases where people suffer chronic unemployment, it takes a great deal of hardship to get families to move. The characteristics of the migrant population gives us a picture of the people who are left in depressed areas. The movers tend to be young and with a higher education than those who remain. Those who stay are largely not in the labor force or are employed in farm labor. In general, depressed areas tend to lose the more productive groups through outmigration. Inmigrants to depressed areas tend to be people returning home and, while there is a lot of movement within the depressed area, most people are unable to break out. The policy procedures which this analysis suggests lead one to believe that outmigration can contribute to a solution of the depressed area problem but cannot be the major factor. The crucial factor in this situation seems to be flow of information about jobs which can encourage outmigration and direct it to places of expanding economic opportunity. Finally, special training and education programs would tend to increase the mobility potential of the labor force in depressed areas.

0669. Mueller, Eva, and Lean, Jane. "The Case Against Migration." New Generation, 50(3) (Summer, 1968), 7-8.
Migration as an economic adjustment to conditions in depressed areas has many benefits, but it also has at least three serious limitations. The following findings and conclusions are based on a large-scale study conducted at the University of Michigan's Survey Research Center and other studies noted in the article. "1) Outmigration gradually deprives depressed areas of some of the most desirable elements of their labor force--the young, the well-educated and the skilled. Data showed that outmigrants are younger, better educated, more likely to be in the labor force, and also more likely to be white collar workers than people who remain in the depressed areas. Net outmigration deprives such areas of some of their potential business and community leadership. 2) In time

the remaining population of depressed areas will gradually show a reduced mobility potential. It seems that increasingly strong economic incentives may be required to maintain net outmigration. 3) The third limitation concerns the influence of economic incentives on the decision to move. Survey data suggest that even strong negative pressures (the "push") are only moderately successful in inducing people to abandon depressed areas. The "pull" provided by awareness of attractive opportunities elsewhere is crucial. The point to be emphasized is that depressed areas experience a net loss of population not just because of outmigration but also and primarily because they attract fewer inmigrants than non-depressed areas. It corroborates a general finding of our study that inmigration rates are more sensitive to economic conditions than are outmigration rates." Moving industry into depressed areas is not necessarily a more feasible or more promising alternative than migration. Two approaches are needed to assist depressed areas. First, a program to expand information about job opportunities elsewhere in the country and to make this information more readily available would help migrants to move rationally. Second, steps to improve and maintain the quality and mobility potential of the depressed area labor force are very important.

0670. Mugge, Robert H. "Negro Migrants in Atlanta." Microfilm 5337 F. Chicago: University of Chicago, Department of Photoduplication, 1957.

0671. Mumey, Glen A. "The Parity Ratio and Agricultural Outmigration." Southern Economic Journal, 26(1) (July, 1959), 63-65.
The positive correlation between parity ratios and agricultural outmigration rates for periods 1922-29 and 1946-56 suggests that higher farm incomes have not deterred outmovement.

0672. Munson, B. E. "Relationship between Economic Activity and Critical Community Dimensions." American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 27(3) (July, 1968).

0673. Murakami, Yasusuke, and Machiko, Kubo. "Migration of Agrarian Labour Force and the Theory of Disguised Equilibrium." The Indian Economic Journal, 12 (October-December, 1964), 111-133.

0674. Murphy, H. B. M. "Migration and the Major Mental Disorders: A Reappraisal." Mobility and Mental Health. Edited by Mildred B. Kantor. Chicago: C. C. Thomas, 1965. Pp. 5-29.

0675. Murphy, W. B. "The Rural-Urban Balance." Vital Speeches, 32(2) (November, 1965), 53.

0676. Myers, George C., McGinnis, Robert, and Masnick, George. "Preliminary Assessment of a Stochastic Process Model of Internal Migration." Population Index, 31 (July, 1965), 256-257.

0677. Nagi, Saad Zaghloul. "Migration and Communicative Integration in a Rural Fringe Population." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1958.
* Residents of the rural fringe of Columbus, Ohio, were studied using information from 303 cases. "The purpose of this study is to determine the degree of communicative integration among old residents and among in-migrants, as well as between the two segments in the population of the rural fringe of Columbus, Ohio." An index of communicative integration devised on the basis of both formal and informal social participation scores was used. "Old residents showed a significantly higher degree of integration in their communities of residence than the migrants. The migrants' integration scores in communities other than those of residence are significantly higher. Both the old residents and the migrants showed a significant tendency to choose new friends from within their respective groups." Among the migrants, the following showed positive association with integration: femaleness, farming, educational and occupational attainment, number of children, length of residence, and stability. The degree of their integration in the previous communities of residence showed a negative relationship. "Old residents in the rural fringe communities are more local-bound in their social relationships than migrants."

0678. Nalson, John S. Mobility of Farm Families. Manchester, Eng.: Manchester University Press, 1968.

0679. Nash, E. F. "Rural Migration: The Economic Background."
* Rural Migration. Papers presented to the First Congress of the European Society for Rural Sociology, Brussels-Louvain, September, 1958. Bonn: Privately published, 1959. Pp. 445-453.
This is an essay that supports the basic economic explanation of migration, namely, that rural people migrate to urban areas in order to seek better income sources. Basic economic cause of the exodus from agriculture is disequilibrium between demand and supply, leading to relative fall in profit and income levels in agriculture and setting up a tendency to labor transfer from agriculture. Some of the factors influencing demand and supply of agricultural products are: elasticity of demand for food; effects on supply of resource distribution between agriculture and other industries and of relative rates of growth in productivity; and persis-

tence of relative agricultural oversupply. Resistance of agriculture to economic change prolongs the relative oversupply of agricultural products. Most measures of government support to agriculture have a similar effect.

0680. Nash, Ruth C. (ed.) Rural Youth in a Changing Environment. Report of the National Conference sponsored by the National Committee for Children and Youth, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, September, 1963. Washington, D. C.: National Committee for Children and Youth, Inc., 1965.
This is a report of the conference which included discussion of problems and recommended solutions for the problems encountered by rural youth in a changing social environment and in urban areas.

0681. Nasrat, Mohamed M. E. "Conceptual Variable Analysis of Rural Migration in Iowa." Dissertation Abstracts, 19(3) (1958), 564-565.
The author provides a general framework for dynamic analysis of migration and tests it by means of available data and other related factors. Results are based on published data on rural migration and other economic variables for 99 Iowa counties.

0682. "A Nation Within a Nation." TIME Magazine, May 17, 1968, pp. 24-32.
This article contains a discussion of people in the U. S. defined as "below the poverty line." Discussion centers on selected poor areas in the U. S., and a map is provided of U. S. counties defined as critical hunger areas.

0683. National Association for Community Development. Rural Poverty: Conference Proceedings, 1967. Washington, D. C.: National Association for Community Development, 1967.
The dimensions of rural poverty are discussed in the light of rural economic development, employment, income support, education, health, housing, and rural community development. In the discussion of the reasons for farm-to-city migration, it is emphasized that at present we lack any accepted national goal in rural-urban balance. However, there is now some awareness of the need for rural development. The farmer's income still lags behind that of other Americans; food prices rise, but farm prices are less today than the 1947-49 average. Rural development programs are being pushed by Economic Opportunity loans, loans for rural housing, community recreation centers, waste disposal systems, central water systems, and resource conservation programs. The role of the Office of Economic Opportunity in dealing with rural poverty is discussed, with particular refer-

ence to Community Action Programs, training and technical assistance, and health needs, particularly those of the aged. The inevitability of migration to the cities is noted along with the concomitant increase in urban poverty. The rural poor require help with the same problems as the urban poor. Rural areas have meager financial resources; they need massive allocation of federal funds, particularly for education, training and migration assistance. The cost of solving rural poverty is high both in dollars and in social displacement.

0684. National Institute of Mental Health. Proceedings of the Rural-Urban Migration Conference. Bethesda, Md.: National Institute of Mental Health, 1964.

0685. National Sharecroppers Fund. Board of Directors. Memorandum on Policy and Programs to End Poverty in Rural America. New York: National Sharecroppers Fund, 1966. Deterioration of the rural economy and continuing advances in agricultural technology are resulting in the forced migration out of the rural areas of about one million people annually. Urban poverty cannot be ended until poverty is ended at its source, the blighted countryside. This is not essentially a race problem. More than two-thirds of the displaced families will be white. An expansion of the rural economy to support rural population increase, plus a merging of the urban society into the rural sector, is necessary for accommodation of the expected population increase.

0686. Neal, Ernest E., and Jones, Lewis W. "The Place of the Negro Farmer in the Changing Economy of the Cotton South." Rural Sociology, 15(1) (March, 1950), 30-41. It is estimated that mechanization and livestock farming will change Southern agriculture to the extent that only 20% of the Negro farm tenant labor supply will be used on mechanized or livestock farms. The majority of the remaining 80% will move to nonfarm places. The authors suggest that those who do not migrate should become a service group for the new agricultural economy.

0687. "Negro-White Differences in Geographic Mobility." Social Security Bulletin, 30(5) (May, 1967).

0688. Nelson, Lowry. "Migration of the Rural Population." Rural Sociology. New York: American Book Co., 1948. Pp. 122-146. Topics discussed include the "push" and "pull" factors in migration, sources of migration data, and patterns and selectivity of migration in the United States. Movement of people from farms, 1920-45, is discussed.

0689. Nelson, Lowry. "Selectivity of Migrants from Minnesota Farms." Minnesota Academy of Science Proceedings, 16-18

(1948-1950), 44-52.
The author presents an analysis of age, sex, and educational characteristics of migrants based on 1935 and 1940 Census data. Results indicate that most farm migrants are in the younger working ages, that women outnumber men, and migrants are better educated than those remaining on farms.

0690. Nelson, Phillip. "Migration, Real Income, and Information." Journal of Regional Science, 1 (Spring, 1959), 43-74.
The author says that, "In the past, behavioral models of migration have focused exclusively on an individual maximizing the money gains of movement....there should be an inverse relationship between distance and migration. Similarly, the money income hypothesis predicts a positive relationship between migration and measures of industrial similarity. These relationships are only partially explicable by individuals maximizing money income. For example, the transportation costs play only a minor role in explaining the relationships between migration and distance. Thus, there are other components of real income besides money income...." The two hypotheses presented are: (1) People prefer to live near present relatives and friends. (2) The distribution of information is important in determining the distribution of migration. "Migration data are available in the following form: State of residence in 1935 by state of residence in 1940, and state of residence in 1949 by state of residence in 1950." "That relatives and friends are important in determining migration is hardly startling. That the operation of relatives and friends provides a basis for understanding the fundamental characteristics of migration patterns is somewhat more interesting news. Relatives and friends provide a unifying principle for the variables determining migration. The money income hypothesis determines which variables will affect migration, but the relatives and friends multiplier determines the relative importance of these variables. In short, this analysis has shown that systematic implications can be deduced from other behavior than money income maximization and that these implications are consistent with the behavior of migration. However, difficulties are encountered in differentiating between the two most obvious causes of the power of relatives and friends: real income and information. There is some evidence that both operate. The occupational distribution of distance elasticities is hard to explain solely by real income considerations. Real income seems completely irrelevant in explaining the role of new firms in attracting migration. Both of these phenomena are explicable by the information hypothesis. Similarly, information has nothing

to do with the greater relationship of migration to destination than to origin income. Relatives and friends as an inferior good provide this explanation. The question that this article leaves unresolved is the relative importance of information and real income in determining migration.

0691. Nelson, Phillip. " A Study in the Geographical Mobility of
* Labor." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia University, 1957.
This study focuses on migrants between states, 1935-40 and 1949-50. Census data were used. Answers were sought for the following questions: 'What variables are most effective in explaining the distribution of migration? What behavior patterns produce these statistical relationships?" "For the earlier period, the following variables proved to have a statistically significant relationship to the logarithm of migration rates: distance, two measures of industrial similarity, the percent of the native population born outside their state of residence as an origin variable, destination income, and destination unemployment. These variables explain 81% of the variance in the logarithm of migration rates. We contend that these statistical results can best be explained by the distribution of labor market information."

0692. Neuberger, Richard L. 'Why People Are Moving to Town." Survey, 87(3) (March, 1951), 119-122.
This article contains a discussion of farm population decreases in the U. S. between 1940 and 1950, with some reasons why farming has lost its appeal to farm youth.

0693. Newman, Dorothy K. "The Negro's Journey to the City--Parts I and II." Monthly Labor Review, 88(5) (May, 1965), 502-507 and 88(6) (June, 1965), 644-649.
This paper is divided into two parts: (1) the housing, occupations, and education of Negro migrants, and (2) a comparison of black migrants with earlier inmigrants. The focus is on results of migration in terms of education, income, and housing and on indicators of motivation, including interest in schooling and training. The conclusion is that Negroes do not lack aspiration and motivation but make intensive attempts to improve and grasp opportunities, with migration one path taken to facilitating success.

0694. Nishiura, Eleanor Noble. "Internal Migration in Indiana."
* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, 1959.
This dissertation focuses on migrants in Indiana. Census reports were used as the source of the data. "In-

stead of simply listing the characteristics of migrants or the characteristics of areas of origin or destination, [this study] has attempted to draw together within one theoretical framework these traditional kinds of findings." "Our analysis showed that the three sets of data which refer to two different periods of time showed consistency among each other and did not contradict the theory which was being tested. These findings showed that census data can be extremely useful at one stage in the testing of a theory and in this particular instance, with a minimum of costs, they convince us that Sara Smith's theoretical framework 'makes sense' in terms of empirical data."

0695. North Carolina. Board of Health. Public Health Statistics Section. Net Migration by Color, Sex and Age for North Carolina and For Each County by Color: 1950 to 1960. Raleigh, N. C.: North Carolina Board of Health, 1961.

0696. North Carolina Fund. "Report No. 1: Background and Design of the Study." Survey of Low-Income Families in North Carolina. Durham, N. C.: North Carolina Fund, 1966.

0697. North Carolina Fund. Final Report of the North Carolina Mobility Fund Project. Submitted to the U. S. Department of Labor, Office of Manpower Policy Evaluation and Research. Durham, N. C.: North Carolina Fund, 1968.

0698. North Carolina. State College. Agricultural Policy Institute. The Farmer and Migration in the United States. Raleigh, N. C.: North Carolina State College, Agricultural Policy Institute, 1961.

0699. Nuetze, G. M. "Major Determinants of Location Patterns." Land Economics, (May, 1967).

0700. Office of Economic Opportunity. The Migrant Farm Worker and the Economic Opportunity Act. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, n.d.

0701. Office of Economic Opportunity. Transcript of Proceedings: Conference on Migration Research. 2 vols. Washington, D. C.: Ace-Federal Reporters, Inc., 1969.

0702. Officer, James E. "Sodalities and Systematic Linkage: The Joining Habits of Urban Mexican-Americans." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona, 1964.

0703. O'Hara, James. "Disadvantaged Newcomers to the City." National Education Association Journal, 52(4) (April, 1963).

0704. Ohio. State Bureau of Unemployment Compensation. Division of Research and Statistics. The Mobile, Unemployed Worker: A Labor Mobility Study of Unemployed Workers Who Migrated to Columbus, Ohio from Other States. Columbus: Ohio State Bureau of Unemployment Compensation, 1962.

0705. Okun, Bernard, and Richardson, Richard W. "Regional Income Inequality and Internal Population Migration." Economic Development and Cultural Change, 9 (January, 1961), 128-143.

0706. Oliver, F. R. "Inter-regional Migration and Unemployment, 1951-1961." Journal for Research in Social Science, 127 (Part I) (1964), 42-75.

0707. Olson, Philip G. Job Mobility and Migration in a High Income Rural Community. Research Bulletin 708. Lafayette, Ind.: Indiana Agricultural Experiment Station, 1960. Nine hypotheses relating to the motives prompting job changes and migration or impediments retarding them were put forward and tested in a survey of 132 persons in White County, Indiana. Included is analysis of persons changing from farming to some other job, with an emphasis on the effects of such change on social status and of the circumstances under which farmers move out of the community as well as out of agriculture.

0708. Olson, Philip G. "Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Labor
* Mobility in an Indiana Rural Community." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, 1959. The subjects of this dissertation are 132 heads of households of a central Indiana rural farming community. "The fundamental objective of this study is to lay out a conceptual framework of labor mobility and migration, and to test its adequacy from empirical data collected in a rural farming community in central Indiana." The differences between the three mobility types, (job mobile, migrant, and job mobile-migrant) "with regard to age, education, income, social status, and occupation led to the conclusions that the migrant was primarily motivated by desire for social betterment, the job mobile for economic betterment, and the job mobile-migrant by both desires." The largest proportion of involuntary job mobility occurred among the job mobile population, and the largest proportion of voluntary, among the job mobile-migrant population.

0709. Olvera, Raymond M. "Mexican-American Population, Growth, Residence, and Assimilation in Dallas, Texas." Manuscript filed with the Department of History, Southern Methodist University, April 3, 1969. This is a report covering the period 1900 to 1960, showing the rate of growth of Mexican-Americans in Dallas, the patterns of residence mobility, and the extent of assimilation.

0710. Omari, Thompson Peter. "Factors Associated with Urban Ad-
* justment of Rural Southern Migrants." Social Forces, 35 (October, 1956), 47-52.

This study focuses on 200 Negro migrants in Beloit, Wisconsin. They were male, 18 years and over, and had had at least one year's residence in the community. The study emphasis was to determine the factors that contribute to the adjustment of Negro migrants. It was concluded that: (1) relatives contribute significantly to the adjustment of the migrants; (2) in determining the nature of the adjustment of the migrant to his new community, attention should be paid to both premigration and postmigration factors; and (3) the length of time the migrant has lived in his new community is the most important factor in the process of his adjustment.

0711. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. Adaptation of Rural and Foreign Workers to Industry: Supplement to the Final Report. Report of the Joint Seminar, International Seminars, 1963-1964, Paris. Washington, D. C.: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Publications Center, 1965.

0712. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. Employment Exchange Services. Paris: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1963.

0713. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. Measures of Adjustment of Rural Manpower to Industrial Work and Urban Areas. Washington, D. C.: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1968. This pamphlet is based on national reports submitted to the working party on "adjustment of rural manpower to industry." The participating countries prepared summaries of their programs according to measures relating to employment structures, housing, and general assistance to transferees; measures prior to transfer; measures concerning the transfer proper; measures concerning integration in the new communities after transfer; coordination of the activities of the various agencies involved in the transfer; receiving communities; and the integration of migrants. The measures indicate the importance of preparing workers leaving agriculture so they may be successfully integrated into industrial life. Preparation for the move includes three essential operations: guidance, vocational training program, and placement in employment and housing. In addition, arrangements must be made for subsidizing removal and transportation expenses, and the cost of resettlement in the new place of residence. After the former agricultural worker has moved to his urban environment, measures must be taken to provide him with future training and to facilitate his social integration into industry. It is necessary to coordinate the action measures aimed at improving the conditions of the transfer from agriculture to industry. Three aspects of coordination are discussed, including the coordination of action by public authorities, coordination of action by the state, local authorities, and private associations of public interest, action taken jointly by the state and by firms, and cooperation between workers' trade unions and employers in action in which the authorities may or may not take part.

0714. Ornati, Oscar A. "Poverty in the Cities." Issues in Urban Economics. Edited by Harvey S. Perloff and Lowdon Wingo, Jr. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1968. Pp. 353-354.

0715. Orshansky, Mollie. "Counting the Poor: Another Look at the Poverty Profile," Social Security Bulletin, (January, 1965), 3-29.

0716. Orshansky, Mollie. Who Was Poor in 1966. Note No. 23. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

0717. Orshansky, Mollie. Who's Who Among the Poor: A Demographic View of Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.

0718. O'Shea, John. "Newark: Negroes Move Toward Power." The Atlantic Monthly, November, 1965, pp. 90-98.
This article contains a description of Newark's Negro population, most of whom are said to be rural Southern migrants who lack the job skills necessary to survive in the urban North.

0719. Osofsky, Gilbert. Harlem: The Making of a Ghetto. New York: Harper and Row, 1966.

0720. Oyler, Merton D. Fertility Rates and Migration of Kentucky Population, 1920 to 1940, as Related to Communication, Income and Education. Bulletin 469. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1944.
The author presents amounts and rates of migration from rural-farm population by age, 1920-40 and examines the relationship between migration and fertility, communication, income, and education. Low income was the strongest single influence and amount of education next in stimulating outmigration.

0721. Oyler, Merton D. Neighborhood Standing and Population Changes in Johnson and Robertson Counties, Kentucky. Bulletin 523. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1948.
This bulletin shows the relationship of farm families' neighborhood standing to level of living, fertility rates, schooling and occupation of migrant children, and parental attitudes toward migration of young people.

0722. Paglin, M. "Surplus Agricultural Labor and Development: Facts and Theories." *American Economic Review*, 55 (September, 1965), 815-834.

0723. Palmer, D. H. "Moving North: Migration of Negroes during World War I." *Phylon*, 28 (Spring, 1967), 52-62.

0724. Palmer, Gladys L. *Labor Mobility in Six Cities: A Report on the Survey of Patterns and Factors in Labor Mobility, 1940-1950.* New York: Social Science Research Council, 1954.

0725. Palomares, Uvaldo H. "A Study of the Role of Mobility in the Acculturation Process of Rural Migrant and Nonmigrant Disadvantaged Mexican-Americans in the Coachella Valley." *Dissertation Abstracts*, 28(10-A), 4008.

0726. Parker, Seymour, and Kleiner, Robert J. "Characteristics of Negro Mothers in Single-Headed Households." *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 28(4) (November, 1966), 507-513.

0727. Parker, Seymour, and Kleiner, Robert J. "Status Position, Mobility, and Ethnic Identification of the Negro." *Journal of Social Issues*, (April, 1964), 85-102.

0728. Parnes, H. S. *Research on Labor Mobility: An Appraisal of Research Findings in the U. S.* New York: Social Science Research Council, 1954.

0729. Parr, John B. "Outmigration and the Depressed Area Problem." *Land Economics*, 42 (May, 1966), 149-159.

0730. Parsons, Howard L. "The Effect of Fluctuations in National Income on the Supply of Farm Workers: An Inquiry into the Cyclical Aspects of Rural-Urban Migration." *The Impact of Fluctuations in National Income on Agricultural Wages and Employment.* Harvard Studies in Labor in Agriculture No. 1-HL. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1952. Pp. 31-55.
The author presents trends and cyclical variations in the farm population and discusses factors affecting farm migration. Employment opportunities appear as *the* significant determinant of the change in the rate *of* migration from farms for the years 1920 to 1945.

0731. Parsons, Talcott, and Clark, Kenneth B. (eds.) *The Negro American.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1966.

0732. Passow, A. Henry. (ed.) *Education in Depressed Areas.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1963.

0733. Payne, Raymond. "Development of Occupational and Migration Expectations and Choices among Urban, Small Town and Rural Adolescent Boys." *Rural Sociology*, 21(2) (June, 1956), 117-125.

Four hundred thirty-eight eighth- and twelfth-grade boys in a Georgia county were asked to state their occupational, migration, and educational expectations and choices, and in what learning situations they had developed their expectations. Analysis revealed evidence that, in general, informal interpersonal situations contributed most to the formation of such expectations, and that the educational expectation was typically formed first, followed by the occupational choice, with the decision concerning future place of residence being dependent upon the first two. The absence of direct influence of formal occupational counseling was noted. The boys were found to be aware of the "prestige value" of occupations, and they were predominantly choosing above their parents; also, they were choosing occupations which were more urbanlike than their parents', and were usually expecting to leave their present communities to live and work as adults.

0734. Pearson, J. E. "The Significance of Housing in Rural-Urban Migration." Land Economics, (August, 1963), 231-239. This article analyzes the possible push-pull effects of urban housing in rural-urban migration and the urban-rural "backwash." Two hypotheses are put forward: (1) Urban housing is influential enough as an antecedent condition of rural-urban migration that quantitative relationships between rural-urban migration and urban housing are perceptible regardless of off-setting and allied factors. (2) Urban housing is influential as an antecedent condition of rural-urban migration along with other general economic factors, and only when housing is isolated from off-setting and allied factors are quantitative relationships between rural-urban migration and urban housing conditions perceptible. The migration data for this study are from the one-year migration census completed in 1950. The data are for 106 cities in the U. S. with population in excess of 100,000 and are divided by sex. The housing data include indicators such as "average rent," "houses vacant for sale or rent, not dilapidated," "houses vacant for sale or rent," and "persons-per-room ratio, 1.51 or over" for 1940 and 1950. To test the first hypothesis, regional and rural-urban and urban-rural migration for each city were correlated with housing indicators. To test the second, the migration data were made into ratios with such economic variables as per capita retail sales, per capita wages, median income, percent unemployed, etc., and then correlated with the housing indicators. No significant correlation patterns were found to support the hypotheses. From the rejection, the author makes three tentative conclusions: (1) Adequate housing in large cities is not a pull factor for rural-urban migrants. Less crowded cities did not attract migration more than crowded ones. In fact, the opposite was true. (2) Inadequate housing in large cities is not a factor in the backwash migration. (3) Adequate housing or inadequate housing in large cities is not a significant factor in net rural-urban migration.

0735. Pedersen, Harald A. "The Costs of Migration." The Church in the Changing Community. Sociology and Rural Life Conference Series 2. State College, Miss.: Mississippi State College, 1956.
Based on a study of migration of high school graduates, this article emphasizes the community investment in educational facilities and other public services and the family investment in food, clothing and medical care to raise the young people who eventually migrate.

0736. Pedersen, Harald A. Estimated Population Trends in Mississippi, 1950-56. Bulletin 550. State College, Miss.: Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, 1957.

0737. Pedersen, Harald A. Migration from Mississippi. Information Sheet 536. State College, Miss.: Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, 1956.
This article contains a discussion of migration from farms in terms of age, educational status, and community costs.

0738. Pedersen, Harald A. "Migration from State Shown in Plantation Study." Mississippi Farm Research, 16(12) (December, 1953), 1, 4, 7-8. State College, Miss.: Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, 1953.
The author presents an analysis of population trends on a Mississippi plantation, 1941-53, with emphasis on the highly mobile Negro population. The effect of migration on the age and sex distribution of the population is presented.

0739. Pedersen, Harald A. Population Prospects for the Delta. Information Sheet 470. State College, Miss.: Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, 1952.
The author considers two probable trends in population for the Yazoo-Mississippi Delta (11 counties) and how these projected population changes will affect the economic and social life of the area. Trends in farm population for the area are projected to 1970 under the assumptions of medium urban expansion and (1) normal off-farm migration and (2) high off-farm migration.

0740. Pedersen, Harald A. Population Trends in Mississippi. Bulletin 467. State College, Miss.: Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, 1949.

Some of the questions which this study attempts to answer are: (1) How extensive is the migration out of State?; (2) Who is migrating?; and (3) How will this affect Mississippi agriculture and rural life?

0741. Pedersen, Harald A. Selectivity in Rural-Urban Migration. Circular 190. State College, Miss.: Mississippi Agricultural Experiment Station, 1953.
The author presents an analysis of the resident population on a selected large plantation in the Mississippi Delta which had maintained an annual census for several decades. Migration has left the population with an over-representation of young children, adolescents, and older adults.

0742. Pedersen, Harald A., and Robertson, Willis J. Migration of High School Graduates from a Mississippi Community. Community Series No. 6. State College, Miss.: Mississippi State University, Social Science Research Center, 1954.

0743. Perkins, Brian B., and Hathaway, Dale E. The Movement of Labor between Farm and Nonfarm Jobs. Research Bulletin No. 13. East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station, 1966.

0744. Perloff, Harvey S., et al. Regions, Resources and Economic Growth. Lincoln, Neb.: University of Nebraska, 1960.

0745. Persky, Joseph, and Kain, John F. "Migration, Employment and Race in the Deep South." Southern Economic Journal, 36(3) (January, 1970), 268-276.
This paper examines the extent to which the peculiarities of racial distribution of employment in the Deep South influence the current racial composition of migration from nonmetropolitan areas. Two-hundred fifty counties from ten states were studied. Causes of migration are clarified and the results of expanding Southern employment are suggested. The model used assumes expanding population and smaller expansion of jobs to be responsible for net migration. Racial distribution of employment then determines the racial composition of the net outflow. If the influx of new nonagricultural jobs more equally matched population growth, the racial character of migration might affect these jobs, but it is also possible that outmigration might decrease somewhat. Jobs of an agricultural nature, on the other hand, because of increased technology, are disappearing before the people leave. Statistically, between 1950-1960, only 21% (370,000) new nonagricultural jobs went to blacks in the counties studied, although the black labor force amounted to 43% of the population, and males between 16-20 accounted for 47%. Blacks lost about 5,200 manual jobs,

and whites gained approximately 110,000. Blacks sustained a 56% decrease in the agricultural labor force. As a result of these figures, 973,000 blacks left their counties as compared to only 465,000 whites in the same counties. Qualitative results of this model are probably more useful than quantitative because they argue strongly for consideration of the original purpose. Since there is high cost involved as the services to ghettos increase because of their rising population, the government might also consider investment at the point where migration begins. It is then a question of which--the urban ghetto or the South--is most preferable to the would-be migrant. Benefits of either are difficult to measure.

0746. "Perspectives on Poverty." Monthly Labor Review, 92 (February, 1969), 32-62.
This article examines the relationship of poverty and employment, methods of measuring poverty, facts and fictions about the poor, programs for income transfer, and international comparisons of poverty. Contributions include: "Changing Attitudes about the Poor," by Mollie Orshansky; "Facts and Fictions about the Poor," by Elizabeth Herzog; "Income Transfer Programs," by Henry J. Aaron; and "An International Comparison," by John H. Chandler.

0747. Petersen, Gene B., and Sharp, Laure. Southern In-Migrants to Cleveland: Work and Social Adjustment of Recent In-Migrants Living in Low-Income Neighborhoods. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., 1969.

0748. Petersen, Gene B., et al. Providing Training and Job Finding Assistance to Disadvantaged Southern In-Migrants to Cleveland. Report submitted to the U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Special Manpower Programs. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., 1970.

0749. Petersen, William. "The General Determinants of Migration."
* Population. New York: MacMillan, 1961. Pp. 592-621.
The author presents a theoretical discussion aimed at differentiating types of migration. The typology developed is based on observations on migratory selection (age, sex, family status, occupation, and psychical factors) and the relation between migration and population growth. When the push-pull polarity has been refined by distinguishing innovating from conservative migration and by including in the analysis the migrants' level of aspiration, it can form the basis of a typology. Five broad classes of migration are defined: (1) primitive migration including the two sub-types, wandering and

ranging; (2) impelled migration; (3) forced migration; (4) free migration; and (5) mass migration.

0750. Petersen, William. "A General Typology of Migration." American Sociological Review, 23(3) (June, 1958), 256-266.

0751. Peterson, Claire L. When the Migrant Laborer Settles Down: A Report of the Findings of a Project on Value-Assimilation among Inmigrant Laborers. Madison, Wisc.: University of Wisconsin, n.d. (Mimeographed.)

0752. Peterson, Claire L., and Scheff, Thomas. "Theory, Method and Findings in the Study of Acculturation: A Review." International Review of Community Development, (13-14) (1965), 155-176.

0753. Peterson,Claire, Krass, Elaine M., and Shannon, Lyle W. "Differential Association, Cultural Integration and Economic Absorption among Mexican-Americans and Negroes in a Northern Industrial Community." Southwestern Social Science Quarterly, 47(3) (December, 1966), 239-252.

0754. Pethe, V. P. "Spatial-Occupational Mobility between Three Generations in Rural Households." Ateneo Veneto, 4 (September, 1962), 253-260.

0755. Pettigrew, Thomas F. Profile of the Negro American. Princeton, N. J.: Van Nostrand, 1964.

0756. Philadelphia. City Planning Commission. Mobility in the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area 1955-1960. Public Information Bulletin 9-A. Philadelphia: Philadelphia City Planning Commission, 1965.
This report shows different demographic characteristics of white versus nonwhite inmigrants.

0757. Phillips, Coy T. "Population Distribution and Trends in North Carolina." The Journal of Geography, 55(4) (April, 1956), 182-194.
Although North Carolina followed the national trend between 1940 and 1950 of declining rural-farm population and increasing urban and rural-nonfarm populations, the State's population in 1950 was nearly equally divided among the three residence groups.

0758. Photiadis, J. D. "Correlaries of Migration." Sociological Quarterly, 6 (Autumn, 1965), 339-348.

0759. Pihlblad, C. T. "Population." Missouri: Its Resources, People and Institutions. Edited by Noel P. Gist et al. Columbia, Mo.: University of Missouri, 1950. Pp. 201-226.
A section on "Migration into and away from Missouri" comments on the fact that much of the migration from

Missouri to other states has been a movement of people from farms.

0760. Pihlblad, C. T., and Gregory, C. L. "Occupations and Patterns of Migration." Social Forces, 36(1) (October, 1957), 56-64.

0761. Pihlblad, C. T., and Gregory, C. L. "Selective Aspects of Migration among Missouri High School Graduates." American Sociological Review, 19(3) (June, 1954), 314-324. The authors note the extent of movement from farms and rural towns for major socioeconomic areas of the State, and examine differences in scores on the Ohio Psychological Test between the sexes and for persons classified by community of origin, size of community of destination, and range of migration. Findings support the hypothesis that migration of rural youth to urban areas tends to be selective of the more intelligent and of those with superior school aptitudes. Also, those with higher scores are more likely to be in the larger-sized places and farther away from home.

0762. Piore, Michael J. "Negro Workers in the Mississippi Delta: Problems of Displacement and Adjustment." Paper presented at the 20th Annual Meeting of the Industrial Relations Research Association, Washington, D. C., December, 1967. The Negro's part in the economy of the Mississippi Delta has been almost totally eliminated. In two successive years, spring seasonal employment has been cut in half, and this decline is superimposed upon a long-term decline in farm operators. The shift from cotton to less labor-intensive production is immediately responsible for agricultural displacement. The theory prevalent among Delta Negro leaders, however, is that the displacements are a white conspiracy to force outmigration and thus avoid the real threat of integration and Negro political power. Current efforts to solve the economic problems of Negroes in the Delta are generally confined to training. But there are no jobs available for program graduates, and projections show insufficient growth rates for such jobs. Given the lack of job opportunities, training programs degenerate into welfare programs. In addition, white control over the programs causes them to be used to retard and punish people for political activity. Negro trainees are assigned to menial and humiliating jobs where instructors are abusive and tyrannical. Manufacturing firms which have attempted to absorb workers have grown up in the civil rights atmosphere and will no longer accept the traditional subservience. There are some hopeful signs that the Negro middle-class of the region, previously hesitant to risk their hard-earned status, are beginning to opt for cooperative business ventures. But on the whole, very little of the constructive action attempted by Negro leadership has paid off, and the promises of Washington have proved empty. Rising frustration leads increasingly to the promise of riots. The author's opinion is that, in its own way, white Mississippi understands this and hopes that by the real time of crisis most of the Negroes will have gone North.

0763. Podell, Lawrence. Mothers' Nativity and Immigration, Families on Welfare in New York City. Preliminary Report No. 4. New York: City University of New York, Graduate Center for Social Research, 1968.
An April, 1966 survey of publicly-assisted mothers, part of research on the utilization of health services by welfare recipients, reveals that approximately one-fifth of the mothers on welfare were born in New York City. About one-third were born in the South, and more than one-third in Puerto Rico. Three out of 10 mothers arrived in New York City as young adults. Only 10% of the mothers on welfare came to New York City when they were over 30 years of age. Three-fourths of all mothers on welfare either were born in New York City or lived there for over a decade. About 25% of the publicly-assisted mothers were reared in each of the following: New York City, other cities, small towns, and farms. One-half were brought up by both of their parents, while a fourth were raised by their mothers only. Half had four or more siblings.

0764. Prasad, S. B., and Johnson, G. A. "Residential Mobility of the Retired Industrial Worker." Land Economics, 40 (May, 1964), 220-223.

0765. President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs. Background Papers. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1970.

0766. President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs. Poverty Amid Plenty: The American Paradox. Report of the President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1969.

0767. President's Commission on Income Maintenance Programs. Technical Studies. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1970.

0768. President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. The People Left Behind. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.
The focus of this report is on rural poverty. Some rural programs, especially farm and vocational agriculture

programs, are called "relics from an earlier age." Data support the idea that migrants who end up in urban slums have better conditions than they had in the rural slums from which they moved. Farm programs have helped create wealthy landowners while by-passing the rural poor. Most of the rural poor do not live on farms. Diseases and premature death are very high; infant mortality is higher than for the most disadvantaged urban groups. Medical and dental care are "conspicuously absent." Unemployment and underemployment are major problems. Rural schools are poor at best, and rural housing is "atrocious." "Most of the rural South is one vast poverty area." "The community in rural poverty areas has all but disappeared as an effective institution." Public services have become grossly inadequate, as tax bases have been eroded by outmigration of more able-bodied wage earners. The adult population has increasingly become one of fewer abilities and resources. Even major social welfare and labor legislation have bypassed many of the rural poor, particularly farmers and farm workers. To improve urban conditions without improving rural conditions is said to supply even more incentive for outmigration from rural areas. The commission presents 12 areas of recommended action.

0769. Price, Daniel O. Changing Characteristics of the Negro Population. A 1960 Census Monograph. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1969.

0770. Price, Daniel O. "Distance and Internal Migration." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of North Carolina, 1947.
This dissertation is an attempt to show the differences in the migrants who travel long distances versus those who travel shorter distances. In the first five chapters, the variables are broken down by white, nonwhite, male and female, to show (1) distance and numbers, (2) distance and sex, (3) age, rural-urban residence and distance of migration, and (4) differential effects of distance on the sexes by age groups and place of residence. Several interesting racial patterns appear. Unfortunately, data were not available on color for the comparisons of occupation, education and employment status with distance of migration. In the four areas considered by race (white-nonwhite), tables appear breaking migration down by region, and so forth.

0771. Price, Daniel O. "Educational Differentials between Negroes and Whites in the South." Demography, 5(1) (1968), 23-33.

0772. Price, Daniel O. "Effects of Outmigration on Educational Level of Negro Males in Southern United States." Paper presented to the United Nations World Population Conference, Belgrade, Yugoslavia, 1965.

0773. Price, Daniel O. "Estimates of Net Migration in the United States, 1870-1940." American Sociological Review, 18(1) (February, 1953), 35-39.
The author presents a report on the progress of joint effort between the University of Pennsylvania and the Institute for Research in Social Science, University of North Carolina, and discusses use of the survival method as a means for estimating net migration and problems involved in the method. The paper reports on estimates of native white net migration by age and sex for North Carolina, 1870-1940. Results indicate a changing age pattern of white male net migrants, with a consistent trend of outmigration in the 20-35 age group, and losses in this age group decreasing each year. Also, the 50-65 age group's increase was normal, but decreasing yearly. The author presents similar data on white females. Negro migration patterns show highly consistent age pattern of net migration with little variation from year to year and consistent inmigration rates. There is an increasing outmigration of Negro females 20-30. The author presents conclusions and consistencies of both data groupings.

0774. Price, Daniel O. "Examination of Two Sources of Errors in the Estimation of Net Internal Migration." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 50 (1955), 689-700.

0775. Price, Daniel O. "A Mathematical Model of Migration Suitable for Simulation on an Electronic Computer." International Population Conference Proceedings, 1959. Vienna: International Union for the Scientific Study of Population.

0776. Price, Daniel O. "The Negro Population of the South." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 13-39.
Price examines population distribution, fertility, marital status, and dependency ratios, migration, occupational changes, education, and income, using data by cohorts from the Census. Of particular interest is the section on migration, in which estimates of net migration were computed by the census survival rate method for regions of the U. S. for 1910-1960. Conclusions reached were: (1) "Negroes are moving out of the rural South at higher rates than are whites;" (2) "The rates at which Negroes are moving out of the rural South are continuing to increase;" (3) "The number of Negroes moving out of the South may be declining even with higher rates of outmigration because of the decline in the Negro population of the South;" (4) "Southern urban areas are declining in attractiveness to Negroes as migration des-

tinations;" and (5) "Negroes are less likely to move as family groups than are whites."

0777. Price, Daniel O. "Next Steps in Studying Mobility and Mental Health." Mobility and Mental Health. Edited by Mildred B. Kantor. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1965. Pp. 238-247.

0778. Price, Daniel O. "Nonwhite Migrants to and from Selected Cities." American Journal of Sociology, 54(3) (November, 1948), 196-201.
The author compares age distributions of nonwhite migrants to and from 15 cities, testing the hypothesis that "among migrants to and from cities of over 100,000 population, the nonwhite migrants more than the white migrants tend to be either single persons or married persons without children and that they tend to be concentrated in the more employable ages. The nonwhite migrants are not only more concentrated in the ages from 18 to 29, but the nonwhite inmigrants are more concentrated in these ages than are the nonwhite outmigrants." It is also shown that the outmigrants are older than the inmigrants, and the hypothesis is formulated that outmigrants from cities of over 100,000 population are older than outmigrants from cities of under 100,000 population.

0779. Price, Daniel O. "Some Socioeconomic Factors in Internal Migration." Social Forces, 29 (1951), 409-415.

0780. Price, Daniel O. "Urbanization of the Blacks." Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly, 48(2) (April, 1970), 47-58.

0781. Price, Daniel O., et al. A Study of the Economic Consequences of Rural to Urban Migration. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 89-4594. Austin, Tex.: TRACOR, Inc., 1969.

0782. Price, J. A. "Migration and Adaptation of American Indians to Los Angeles." Human Organization, 27 (Summer, 1968), 168-174.

0783. Price, Paul H. Louisiana's Rural Population at Mid-Century. Bulletin 514. Baton Rouge, La.: Louisiana Agricultural Experiment Station, 1958.
The author presents an analysis of population characteristics and change by urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm residence groups. In many sections of Louisiana, there was an exodus of nonwhite farm people between 1940 and 1950. Decline in the number of white farm people was noted to a considerably lesser extent.

0784. Proctor, Samuel D. "The Preparation of Negro Youth for National Manpower Needs." The Manpower Revolution: Its Policy Consequences. Edited by Garth Mangam.

Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1965.
The author discusses preparation of Southern Black migrants for work in areas of inmigration.

0785. Purdy, Lawson. "Negro Migration in the United States." American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 13(4) (July, 1954), 357-362.
Purdy bases his study of Negro migration 1920-1950 on Census data and discusses numbers, direction of migration, and relation of property values in areas of heavy migration. General conclusions are based on tables. (1) Negroes had a 44% population gain between 1920-1950. (2) In three areas which in 1920 housed 85% of the Negro population, gains of 17% (South Atlantic), 7% (East South Central), and 18% (West South Central) were observed, whereas the total of six other areas increased 210%. Purdy attributes this to migration (exact rates may be suspect if there is differential fertility). Other conclusions: Six states account for 81% of the increase. Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, and South Carolina dropped in percent Negro. Each state of outmigration had a relatively higher income than in 1920. Four of the six states with the largest inmigration had a lower percent of the U. S. average. Real estate values have declined in assessed worth.

0786. Raimon, Robert L. "Inter-State Migration and Wage Theory." The Review of Economics and Statistics, 44 (November, 1962), 428-438.

0787. Rainwater, Lee. "Social and Cultural Problems of Migrants to Cities." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 248-266.
Findings are: (1) Housing problems of the poor are simply reflections of problems of low income. (2) Migrants as a transitional marginal group in the city need housing that is manageable in terms of their transitional orientation. Migrants will not be interested in programs of home ownership or programs that require a strong interest in property maintenance; a good stock of low-rent older housing is in order. (3) There will still be housing needs because most cities do not have an adequate stock of older dwellings; the possibility of mobile homes and trailer-like pre-fab units for new migrants shows considerable promise for meeting needs of new migrants. (4) Housing should be made available for families just above the poverty level. (5) Builders and others should be provided subsidies so they can provide housing to migrants at low cost. (6) Slum clearance

should assume a much more minor role in Federal housing policies than it has had to date.

0788. Rainwater, Lee. "Work and Identity in the Lower Class." Planning for a Nation of Cities. Edited by Sam B. Warner, Jr. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Technology Press, 1966.

0789. Ramsey, Charles E., and Anderson, W. A. Migration of the
* New York State Population. Bulletin 929. Ithaca: New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell Agricultural Experiment Station, 1958.
This bulletin presents results of a study of migrants in New York State, based on Censuses, 1870-1940. A detailed description of the size of migration into and out of New York State is given. There was no relationship found between sex and the amount of migration in the urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm populations. Movement from nonfarm to farm residence involved more distances, on the average, than other types of migrations. Migrants were younger and more educated than the nonmigrants in all economic areas. The labor force participation rate was higher for persons who moved than for nonmovers. Professional and technical workers moved to and from economic areas more than skilled workers, but the latter moved more within nonmetropolitan areas. There was some tendency for migrants to have lower median incomes than nonmigrants.

0790. Ramsey, Charles E., Orman, Allan D., and Nelson, Lowry. Migration in Minnesota, 1940-50. Bulletin 422. St. Paul, Minn.: Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station, 1954. The authors analyze the extent of rural-urban migration and associated agricultural, industrial and other factors. Data are given for counties and economic areas.

0791. Raup, Philip M. "Economic Aspects of Population Decline in Rural Communities." Labor Mobility and Population in Agriculture. Issued by the Center for Agricultural and Economic Adjustment, Iowa State University. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, n.d. Pp. 95-106.

0792. Raup, Philip M. "Impact of Population Decline on Rural
* Communities." Farm Policy Forum, 13 (1960-61), 28-36. The author presents an essay dealing with the relationship between outmigration of farm population and availability of local services in small, rural communities. Secondary data sources were used. "Explanation for small town decline is not necessarily to be found in immutable trends toward fewer and bigger farms and toward business in marketing and retailing functions. A part of the explanation lies in the absence, at the small town level, of services that we recognize at the farm level under the names of supervised credit and agricultural

research and extension....Because of migration, some of these communities are surplus to our needs for the services that they have traditionally performed. The extent to which they are 'surplus' will not be accurately appraised until we have explored more thoroughly the steps that could be taken to render them economically viable."

0793. Ravitz, Mel. "Rural In-migration and Urban Assimilation." Paper presented at the National Conference on Problems of Rural Youth in a Changing Environment, Washington, D. C., September, 1963. Washington, D. C.: National Committee for Children and Youth, Inc., 1963. (Mimeographed.) The author presents a discussion of processes of interaction in bringing about assimilation of rural youth in urban areas.

0794. Rayhawk, Arthur L. "Balance of Migration between Georgia and Other States." Georgia Business, 14(1) (August, 1954), 1-5.

0795. Reagan, Barbara B. Mobility Adjustments, Levels of Living and Propensity to Succeed of Retrained Disadvantaged Workers and Their Families. Mexican American Industrial Migrants: Preliminary Report, Part I. Submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 99-4775. Dallas, Tex.: Southern Methodist University, Institute of Urban Studies, 1970.

0796. Reagan, Barbara B., et al. Mexican American Industrial Migrants. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity, OEO Contract B 99-4774, SMU Project 8635. Dallas, Tex.: Southern Methodist University, Institute of Urban Studies, 1971.

0797. Real Estate Analyst. "Migratory Population Changes within Metropolitan Areas." Real Estate Analyst, 23 (August, 1954), 317-338.

0798. Reeder, William W., LeRay, Nelson, and Craig, Wesley, Jr. "Factors Influencing Occupational Decisions in a Low-Income Area." Bulletin 67-1. New York: Cornell University, Department of Rural Sociology in cooperation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, 1965.

0799. Reiss, Albert J., Jr. "Rural-Urban and Status Differences in Interpersonal Contacts." American Journal of Sociology, 65 (September, 1959), 182-195. The number of contacts per individual in a given period of time in Nashville was found to depend more on agricultural or nonagricultural place of origin than on the present type of residential settlement--urban, rural nonfarm, or rural farm residence.

0800. Reiss, Albert J., Jr., and Kitagawa, Evelyn M. "Demographic Characteristics and Job Mobility of Migrants in Six Cities." *Social Forces*, 32 (1953), 70-75.

0801. Rendon, G. "Prediction of Adjustment Outcomes of Rural Migrants to the City." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Colorado, 1968.

0802. Renshaw, Vernon. "The Role of Migration in Labor Market Adjustment." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 1970.

0803. Republican Coordinating Committee. The Task Force on Job Opportunities and Welfare. *Revitalizing Our Rural Areas.* Washington, D. C.: Republican Coordinating Committee, Task Force on Job Opportunities and Welfare, 1967.

0804. *Review of the River Plate.* "Shifting and Drifting: Urban and Rural Populations." *Review of the River Plate*, 130 (November, 1961), 15-16.

0805. Riessman, Frank. *The Culturally Deprived Child.* New York: Harper and Row, 1962.

0806. Ritchey, P. Neal. "Poverty among Rural-Urban Migrants to Metropolitan Areas." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, Washington, D. C., August 26-30, 1970. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, 1970. (Typewritten.)
Ritchey states that "differences in demographic, social and economic characteristics among the urban centers of varying sizes are frequently as significant as those existing in the populations aggregated by a rural-urban classification." His paper is based on the USDA-UGA Study, with data from 1967 SEO tapes. Size of place is based on 1960 Census categories. The paper investigates the poverty dimensions of rural-urban migration by varying aspects of urban conditions (i.e., nonmetropolitan-metropolitan; central city-ring; poor-nonpoor central city areas). It (1) examines the distribution of rural-urban migrants by relevant demographic characteristics within these places, (2) compares the incidence of poverty of rural-urban migrants to that of the urban population of urban origin, and (3) tests the proposition that previous or prolonged urban experience is inversely associated with the incidence of poverty. Poverty incidence is used as a broad measure of socioeconomic well-being. Poverty threshold was determined taking into account age, sex of head, number and composition of family, and farm-nonfarm origin residence. Findings include the following: (1) Not quite half of those classified as rural-urban migrants in 1967 were living in very large metropolitan areas, and the majority lived in a

place of at least a half million people. The proportion of urban population with rural background was usually inversely related to size of place. (2) While the incidence of poverty among either rural-urban migrants or urban-origin population was not related to size of place, in every size of place category, the incidence of poverty was greater among rural-urban migrants than among urban-origin population. (3) Negro rural-urban migrants moved more often to large-sized places than did whites, and Negroes constituted successively higher proportions of rural-urban migrants as size of place increased. (4) Female rural-urban migrants more often than males were found in metropolitan rather than nonmetropolitan areas. (5) Of the rural-urban migrants, 72% were of rural-nonfarm origin, and 28% were of rural-farm origin. The proportion of the urban population with rural farm background generally was inversely related to city size. (6) Generally Negroes more often than whites, older and younger more often than middle-year adults, and females more often than males experienced a higher incidence of poverty. (7) Both rural-farm and rural-nonfarm rural-urban migrants had higher incidences of poverty for both sexes in nonmetropolitan than in metropolitan areas. (8) Generally there was no difference in incidence of poverty between black migrants and black urban-origin populations and in some size places, blacks of urban-origin had higher incidences. (9) The incidence of poverty for Negro rural-urban migrants displayed a strong inverse relationship with size of place. (10) In general, it can be concluded that: (a) the fact of being Negro is much more significant than residence origin as a predictor of poverty, and (b) the largest-sized places are more conducive to social and economic well-being for Negroes, regardless of residence origin. (11) "...the decidedly higher incidences of poverty among rural-urban migrants can be attributed to inmigrants of farm origin." (12) Large-sized metropolitan areas had higher proportions of migrants and natives in poor central city areas than any other sized cities. Medium-sized metropolitan areas had the lowest proportion of migrants and natives in poor areas of central cities than any other sized cities. (13) Over half of rural-urban migrants in very large metropolitan areas had moved just once. The proportion of one-stage migrants decreased as size of place decreased, to only 26% of rural-urban migrants in nonmetropolitan areas. (14) Regardless of previous urban experience, migrants had higher incidences of poverty than urban-origin population in metropolitan areas, regardless of size of place. In metropolitan areas, one-stage migrants had higher incidences than multi-stage migrants, but the reverse was true in nonmetropolitan areas. (15) An inverse relationship between incidence of poverty and duration of residence was found in urban nonmetropolitan areas and in all urban metropolitan areas combined. However, in the three smaller-sized metropolitan areas, this relationship did not hold. (16) Negro migrants to central cities did not experience a decreasing incidence of poverty as duration increased. The incidence was 19%-22% for arrivals in all decades. The author concludes that rural-urban migrants are "scapegoats" of those pointing the finger of blame for central city problems. There is no difference among Negroes by migration status for incidence of poverty. For whites, there is, and the situation is mitigated by, duration of residence.

0807. Roberts, Roy L. Some Postwar Rural Trends in Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1946.
The author discusses occupational shifts, migration, veterans' adjustments, and farmers' use of increased income and savings in 10 counties in the Appalachian Region during the latter part of 1945.

0808. Robertson, Lynn, et al. Rural Youth in Indiana. Bulletin 467. Lafayette, Ind.: Indiana Agricultural Experiment Station, 1942.
This study of the characteristics and problems of rural youth, 18-24 years of age (1940), shows (1) that they migrated despite the depression, (2) where they went after leaving home, (3) what occupations they prefer, and (4) the farming opportunities for youth.

0809. Rogers, Andrei A. Matrix Analysis of Interregional Population Growth and Distribution. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1968.

0810. Rogers, Andrei A. "Regression Analysis of Interregional Migration in California." Review of Economics and Statistics, 49(2) (May, 1967).

0811. Rogers, T. W. "Stochastic Process for Determining Migration Probability." Sociological Quarterly, 9 (Spring, 1968), 193-201.

0812. Rose, Arnold M. "The American Negro Problem in the Context of Social Change." The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences, 357 (January, 1965).

0813. Rose, Arnold M. "Distance of Migration and Socioeconomic Status of Migrants." American Sociological Review, 23 (1958), 420-423.
A sample of migrants drawn from lists of new customers of a local electrical company in 1955 was used. The

author found that higher status people, seeking better jobs, move a greater distance to find them, on the average, than do people looking for lower level opportunities. Exceptions were Negroes and lower status whites who migrated long distances from the South and obtained lower level jobs.

0814. Rose, Arnold M., and Warshay, Leon. "The Adjustment of
* Migrants to Cities." Social Forces, 36 (October, 1957), 72-76.
Migrants to Minneapolis (and adjoining areas serviced by the Minneapolis Electric Company) who came from outside a 40-mile radius of the city between March 1, 1955, and May 31, 1955 were the subjects of the study. The data were gathered from 217 migrants. The following hypotheses were tested: (1) Migrants who move from one urban area to another are likely to act more 'efficiently' in solving their adjustment problems than do migrants from rural areas. (2) Migrants with already existing primary group contacts in the urban community are more likely to remain isolated from the rest of the community and/or to remain isolated longer, than migrants without such contacts. (3) Migrants without already existing primary group contacts in the new community are more likely to feel disheartened and/or pessimistic about their life accomplishments and life chances than are those with such contacts. (4) Migrants without already existing primary group contacts in the new community are more likely to feel distrust in, or lack of sympathy for, other people. The hypotheses can be regarded as "confirmed in general. ...Rural-urban background differences in the migrants were less important than the presence in the new community of relatives and friends....The theory used here has been found useful in predicting and accounting for the observed empirical relationships."

0815. Ross, H. L. "Reasons for Moves to and from a Central City Area." Social Forces, 40 (March, 1962), 261-263.

0816. Rossi, Peter H. Why Families Move: A Study in the Social Psychology of Urban Residential Mobility. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955.

0817. Rossi, Peter H., and Blum, Zahava D. Class, Status and Poverty. Report No. 15. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University, Center for the Study of the Social Organization of Schools, 1968.

0818. Rottenberg, Simon. "On Choice in Labor Markets." Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 9 (January, 1956), 183-189.

0819. Roy, P. "Factors Related to Leaving Farming." Journal of Farm Economics, 43 (August, 1961), 666-674.

This study is specifically concerned with attempting to isolate the differential aspiration of all farmers, part-time and full-time, to leave their present occupation in search of more financially remunerative positions, and the relation of this factor to certain socioeconomic variables. The dependent variable was the question, "Suppose you were offered a chance to make a lot more money than you are making now. Tell me whether these things would or would not stop you from accepting the offer. Suppose that it involved: 1) taking on substantial debt; 2) living in a big city; 3) giving up your spare time; 4) moving around the country a lot; 5) leaving your community; 6) leaving Stephens County; 7) taking on more responsibility; 8) changing your occupation; 9) endangering your health; and 10) leaving your family for some time." Responses were combined to form three approximately equal size categories of high, medium, and low aspirants. Conclusions were: "(1) The dependent variable termed 'level of aspiration' seemed to demonstrate unidimensionality as manifested by the Guttman scaling techniques and seemed to be similar to that used by Fiegel. (2) Level of aspiration was not related to any of the five measures used for performance on the farm-gross farm sales, productive-man-work units, net farm income, net worth, or the amount of information a farmer sought from an agency like the Agricultural Extension Service. (3) Inverse associations were found between level of aspiration and age, and level of aspiration and years in farming. These associations are quite logical in that the older a person gets or the longer he works in one occupation, the less would he want to leave and seek his fortune elsewhere. (4) Education, family income, and level of living were not related to level of aspiration. (5) No association was found between level of aspiration and the number of nonfarm jobs the operator had worked in, nor the number of additional skills he had from which he felt he could make a living. Further, the fact that the operator's father or his wife's father was in farming, or that he had brothers in farming or that he had brothers in farming or in other occupations, or even that his wife worked in a nonfarm occupation, did not seem to push or pull his own aspiration to leave farming. Even the amount of nonfarm family earnings did not seem to affect his aspiration to leave farming...." The research results indicate that the aspiration to leave farming for people in chronically low-income counties does not fit the expected economic and sociological patterns.

0820. Rubin, Morton. "Localism and Related Values among Negroes in a Southern Rural Community." Social Forces, 36

(March, 1958), 263-267.
The research was undertaken during the summer of 1956 in Houston and the surrounding countryside of West Chickasaw County in Northeast Mississippi. The site was selected because it represented the home base of a majority of Southern rural Negro migrants to the industrial city of Beloit, Wisconsin, which was studied by T. P. Omari in 1954. Five indices were derived: (1) Locality Satisfaction (things people liked and did not like about "living around here"); (2) Locality Orientation (location and frequency of visits with friends and relatives and the degree of participation in local churches and clubs); (3) Institutional Conservatism (questions based on changes in family, community, educational and religious institutional life since respondent was young); (4) Projection of Local Opportunities (views of "future" for young black people); and (5) Success Themes (criteria for success of black people). The findings reveal a folk society influx. The older generation that once chose country living over the city looks out upon the local scene and concludes that opportunity for those who would succeed can be found best in Northern industrial cities. Other parts of this study confirm Omari's findings in Beloit that migration is directed specifically to Northern industrial cities where close relatives already live and work.

0821. Rubin, Morton. "Migration Patterns of Negroes from a Rural Northeastern Mississippi Community." Social Forces, 39 (October, 1960), 59-60.
This study deals with migration patterns of 386 Negroes from the town of Houston and its surrounding open country in Western Chickasaw County, Mississippi. Analysis of first migration destination points of the 386 kin migrants revealed a regional concentration of 112 migrants (31%) to such Southern rural areas as the Mississippi Delta and Arkansas and to smaller towns in Mississippi, Tennessee, and Kentucky. Defining a gateway city as a primary destination point leading to secondary migration, the nearest gateway city was Memphis, followed by St. Louis and Chicago-Gary. Kansas City was gateway to the West, and Detroit, gateway to the Michigan peninsula. A total of 34% of migrants went to gateway cities. Secondary migration trends validate the observation that migration is increasingly directed toward independent and satellite cities, notwithstanding the continuing importance of gateway cities. While first rank for primary migration must be given to rural areas in Mississippi and the Arkansas Delta, the 10 following cities represent 52% of all primary destination points: St. Louis, Chicago, Beloit, Memphis, Detroit, Milwaukee, Kalamazoo, Kansas

City, Cleveland and Erie. In the ranking of secondary destination points, the six following cities account for 43% of all secondary kin migrants: Chicago, St. Louis, Memphis, Buffalo, Erie, and Beloit. If we consider migration concentrated when two-thirds or more of a family group migrate to the same destination, then 41%, or 33 kin migrant groups of a single generation, were so concentrated. Respondents cited better work opportunities and higher wages elsewhere as major reasons for the migration of their siblings and children. Wives tended to follow their husbands' quest for work. Two-thirds of the kin migrants reportedly chose their first migration destination because of available work opportunities, while 18% selected their destination point primarily to live with their families already there. However, close kin of in-laws were already resident in two-thirds of all destination communities. Chief communication sources among these migrants from rural to urban areas are primary and familistic. There is a high rate of reciprocal visiting between migrants and their families back home.

0822. Rubin, Morton. "Negro Migration and Adjustment in Boston." Boston: Northeastern University, 1959.

0823. Rubin, Morton. Plantation County. New Haven, Conn.: College and University Press, 1963.

0824. Rural Poverty In the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.

0825. Russell, Joe L. "Changing Patterns in Employment of Nonwhite Workers." Monthly Labor Review, (May, 1966), 503-509.
It is stated that the changing occupational structure of the economy will be working against nonwhites, since the occupations in which they are now concentrated will grow more slowly than other occupations. Two different hypothetical estimates of future employment patterns show that nonwhite workers will have to gain access to the rapidly growing skilled and white collar occupations at a faster rate than in recent years if their unemployment rate is to be brought down to the same level as for white workers. Solutions are defined as education and training opportunities and reduction of racial discrimination in hiring.

0826. Ruttan, V. W. "Farm and Nonfarm Employment Opportunities
* for Low-Income Farm Families." Phylon, 20 (Fall, 1959), 248-255.
The author presents an essay on the future of agricultural labor opportunities. The author makes predictions

on future migration trends. "(1) Employment opportunities in Southeastern agriculture will be extremely limited during the next decade for those individuals who are unwilling to accept extremely low levels of income. (2) Expanding urban employment within the region will offer substantial non-farm opportunities to migrants from Southeastern farms. But white migrants will have a comparative advantage as far as higher paying industrial jobs in the Southeast are concerned. (3) Assuming continued expansion of the national economy, employment opportunities for Southern migrants to the Northeast and Midwest will continue to expand."

0827. Ruttan, V. W. "Industrial Progress and Rural Stagnation in
* the New South." Social Forces, 34 (December, 1955), 114-118.
The author presents a general discussion of the economic conditions in the Southern U. S., emphasizing the relationships between farm employment, farm income, migration and industrialization. Existing information was utilized. "The experience of the 1930-40 decade indicates rather clearly that the extensive declines in farm employment that did occur have not had an adverse effect on the farm output of the region....Those areas of the Southeast in which farm people have made the greatest economic gains have generally been located in close proximity to developing urban centers....The level of welfare achieved by rural farm people, both in the Southeast and the nation, bears a direct and positive relationship to the extent of urban-industrial development in the same general areas." Most of the existing agricultural education and conservation programs must be continued, and vocational training of farm youth must emphasize skills that will be useful outside agriculture.

0828. Saben, Samuel. "Geographic Mobility and Employment Status, March 1962- March 1963." Monthly Labor Review, 87 (August, 1964), 873-881.
A study of migrants and nonmigrants, conducted to determine the extent to which unemployed workers migrate compared with the mobility of employed workers, found that along with the employment situation, age was a strong determinant of migration.

0829. Safa, Helen Icken. An Analysis of Upward Mobility in Low-Income Families: A Comparison of Family and Community Life among American Negro and Puerto Rican Poor. Syracuse, N. Y.: Syracuse University, 1967.

0830. Saldana, Nancy. Mexican-Americans in the Midwest: An Annotated Bibliography. Special Paper 10. East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State University, Rural Manpower Center, 1969.

0831. Samora, Julian, and Lamanna, Richard A. Mexican-Americans in a Midwest Metropolis: A Study of East Chicago. Advance Report No. 8. Los Angeles: University of California, Graduate School of Business Administration, Division of Research, 1967.
The East Chicago Mexican-American community differs from most Northern Mexican-American communities in that its population is less transient, it is not composed of agricultural workers who dropped off the migrant stream, and the settlement is older, larger, and constitutes a larger proportion of the total population than in most other places in the North. Compared to their position in the Southwest, the Mexicans are immigrants rather than indigenous, the dominant groups are of European immigrant stock and not "old" Americans, many of the others are also Catholic, and the intergroup situation is more complex. Group assimilation has been limited and slow. Individual assimilation has been upwardly mobile. East Chicago functions as a way station on the road to individual assimilation because the community lacks the holding power to retain its assimilated members and this is unlikely to change. Moreover, as long as the community continues to be fed by a stream of new migrants, and as long as fertility remains high, Mexican-Americans cannot expect to assimilate much more than they have. A crisis brought on by the latent conflict between the high dropout rates and shrinking employment opportunities for the unskilled could radically change the picture by encouraging a new emphasis on education.

0832. Sanchez, George. Forgotten People. Albuquerque, N. M.: University of New Mexico Press, 1940.

0833. Sanders, Irwin T., and Galloway, Robert E. Rural Families in the Purchase Area of Western Kentucky. Bulletin 647. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1956.
The authors discuss age, education, occupation, and destination of migrants, reasons for migrating, and contact maintained between parents and migrant children. Full-time farm families were most likely to have children away from home than nonfarm and part-time farm families.

0834. Sanders, John. "The Depressed Area and Labor Mobility: The Eastern Kentucky Case." Journal of Human Resources, 4(4) (Fall, 1969), 437-450.

0835. Sanders, John. "Some Aspects of the Economics of Return Migration: With Reference to the Eastern Kentucky Coal Fields." Unpublished master's thesis, University of Kentucky, 1967.

0836. Sanua, Victor D. "Immigration, Migration and Mental Illness:

A Review of the Literature with Special Emphasis on Schizophrenia." *Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations.* Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 291-352.
Residential mobility is distinguished from migration and immigration. Studies in the U. S. for white, black, Puerto Rican, Jewish, and other nationality groups are reviewed for the relation between migration and immigration and mental illness. Also reviewed are studies in world areas of recent high immigration, such as England, Canada, Australia, Israel, and the Scandinavian countries. Other descriptions are of studies in Asia, Hawaii, and other European and Latin American countries. The author concludes, "migration or immigration and their relation to mental illness as measured by hospital statistics are too gross variables. Research should be more fruitful...if both the characteristics of the migrant and nonmigrant and the conditions under which they move are fully considered."

0837. Saunders, Lyle. *Cultural Differences and Medical Care: The Case of the Spanish Speaking People of the Southwest.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1954.

0838. Saville, John. *Rural Depopulation in England and Wales, 1851-1951.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1957.

0839. Saville, John. "Rural Migration in England and Wales." *Rural Migration.* Papers presented to the First Congress of the European Society for Rural Sociology, Brussels-Louvain, September, 1958. Bonn: Privately published, 1959. Pp. 58-63.

0840. Savitz, L. *Delinquency and Migration.* Philadelphia: Commission on Human Relations, 1960.

0841. Scarlett, M. "Psychodynamic Interpretation of Population Movement: A Changing Emphasis Reflected in Travelers Aid Casework." *Social Service Review*, 36 (September, 1962), 280-285.

0842. Scheff, Thomas J. "Acculturation and Ties to Former Home of Mexican-Americans in an Industrial City." *International Review of Community Development*, 15-16 (1966), 239-244.

0843. Scheff, Thomas J. "Changes in Public and Private Language among Spanish-Speaking Migrants to an Industrial City." *International Migration* (Geneva), 3(1 & 2) (1965), 78-85.

0844. Scher, Reinhard. "The War on Poverty in West Virginia: National Program and Regional Realities." *Journal of Social*

Work Progress, 16 (1967), 53-68.
The rate of increase of the aged in West Virginia was three times as great as that of the entire country from 1950 to 1960. Public assistance recipients now are almost as poor as they were in 1960 because increases in welfare payments have not kept pace with the rising cost of living. At present, 35% of all West Virginia families live below the poverty level. Coal mining promises less jobs, and it is doubtful that such land can be reconverted for other kinds of economic activity. Even considerable economic growth in the U. S. would not create any large number of jobs in the state. A principal safety valve has been outmigration, but migrants often fail elsewhere because of limited educational background and work experience. However, state programs refuse to recognize the necessity of this migration, and they do nothing to help the migrants. College-educated natives of the state do not remain in West Virginia.

0845. Schiller, Bradley R. "Stratified Opportunities: The Essence of the 'Vicious Circle.' " *American Journal of Sociology*, 76(3) (November, 1970), 426-442.

0846. Schmid, Calvin F., and Griswold, Manzer J. "Migration within the State of Washington, 1935-40." *American Sociological Review*, 17(3) (June, 1952), 312-326.
The authors show that patterns of intrastate migration are positively correlated with differences in levels of economic activity and changes in economic activity among subregions. Migration was largely from the agricultural eastern part of Washington to the manufacturing and economically dominant western part of the state. Distance was an important factor in volume as well as in the selection of migrants.

0847. Schmid, Calvin F., and Nobbe, Charles E. "Socioeconomic Differentials among Nonwhite Races." *American Sociological Review*, 30 (1965), 909-922.

0848. Schmid, Calvin F., *et al.* *Impact of Recent Migration on Seattle Schools.* Vienna: International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1959.

0849. Schnittker, J. A., and Owens, G. P. *Farm-to-City Migration: Perspectives and Problems.* Agricultural Economics Report No. 84. Lawrence, Kan.: University of Kansas, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1959.
*
The authors present results of a study of farmers (non-professional, non-supervisory male workers) who had moved to industrial jobs. Interviews were taken from 46 respondents who had been employed for fewer than five years and who listed farm operation among their last three previous jobs. "The small study reported here was

undertaken with the deliberate intention of reviewing many of the changes occurring in the relationship of the farm sector of the economy to the nonfarm sector." One-half of the excess labor supply on the farms in Kansas was employed off the farm in 1954. A small group of men who had moved from farms to industrial jobs in the past five years showed considerable adaptability to new jobs and had improved their incomes, but they still preferred farm life. Managers of employment offices and of manufacturing firms in Kansas indicated ready acceptance and, in some instances, a small preference for, workers with farm backgrounds for certain types of jobs.

0850. Schnitzer, Martin C. "An Approach to the Amelioration of Rural Poverty: Migration and Relocation." Working Paper No. 12. Blacksburg, Va.: Virginia Polytechnic Institute, College of Business, Department of Business Administration, 1968.

0851. Schon, Donald. "Assimilation of Migrants into Urban Centers." Rural Poverty in the United States. A Report of the President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968. Pp. 267-287.
This paper appraises the effect of state and local programs on rural-urban migration, identifies existing conflicts in major program elements, assesses the effectiveness of programs in achieving objectives, and recommends changes in programs to increase effectiveness. The author says that "Programs and policies affecting rural-urban migration are of three types: (1) those that act to encourage rural-urban migration by creating conditions that tend to displace people from rural areas or that pull them toward urban areas; (2) those that discourage migration, either by creating conditions that tend to hold people in rural areas or that discourage them from entering urban areas; and (3) those that provide, or could provide, support and assistance contributing to the success of rural-urban migration." Type 1 programs are further identified as (a) those that act to limit employment opportunities, displace workers, or further limit and depress living standards in the rural area; (b) those that provide information or experiences that increase the possibility of relocation being perceived as a viable alternative; (c) those that discriminate against the poor or subgroups of the poor; (d) those that actually support relocation or require a willingness to relocate as a condition for receiving aid; and (e) those that create the possibility of dissatisfaction where it did not exist before (e.g., by increasing educational level, or by increasing skills to a higher level than can be used

locally.) Two particular programs are named which are specifically designed to encourage or support relocation: (1) the employment assistance program of the U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs; and (2) the labor mobility demonstration projects sponsored by OMPER and BES of the U. S. Department of Labor. Other programs are said to encourage rural-urban migration but in a limited way: 1) USDA programs such as acreage allotments, marketing quotas, soil bank and price-support programs, in many cases, have limited the ability of farmers to expand their operations and to provide jobs for farm people. 2) USDA Food Stamp Program versus the Surplus Commodity Program: The former excludes the lowest income families, while the latter provides food without charge but also without choice. Reports, from civil rights groups largely, indicate that the choice of the Food Stamp Program in some rural counties, particularly in the Deep South, is consciously used to "push" the poorest people or those with other "undesirable" characteristics out of the area. 3) Recent amendments to the Federal Minimum Wage Law (effective February 1, 1967): By extending the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act to include agricultural workers not formerly covered, this act has actually resulted in massive displacement of farm workers, because farmers cannot pay the wages and/or find it cheaper to mechanize. 4) Manpower Development and Training Act programs of the U. S. Department of Labor require applicants to indicate a willingness to relocate if necessary and in some states these programs are closely related to labor mobility projects. It is stressed in this article that MDTA programs do assume that many trainees will have to relocate in order to use their skills. 5) The interarea clearance activity of the Bureau of Employment Security of the U. S. Department of Labor: This is operated through State Employment Security Commissions and encourages migration of those who are provided clearance services. Those with low skills or who have been unemployed may not be able to afford going to another area for a pre-employment interview or even the move itself, since clearance orders are issued by local offices who have specific job offers from employers they cannot fill locally. Also, the major clearance activity related to farm workers may inhibit rural-urban migration, since it is the prime mechanism for obtaining seasonal work crews, who may be continuously "cleared" from one area to another for short periods of time. Thus, this program supports the continuance of the migratory work pattern. 6) Job Corps program administered by the Office of Economic Opportunity: These programs, both the urban and rural types, offer a residential training program for youth aged 16-22 who are considered disadvantaged. It is stated that many rural youth are assigned to urban Job Corps centers and vice versa. The Job Corps "has recognized that for many of the corpsmen to return home after completing training would be inadvisable or inappropriate because of destructive environment, lack of employment opportunities or racial/ethnic prejudice in the home community. However, this program only affects single men and women." Type 3 programs, those that support the success of migration once it has been undertaken, are supposed to be neutral in effect, but to the extent that they are motivating forces, "they probably increase the propensity to migrate." These programs and policies are 1) the Adult Basic Education program, enabled under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964; 2) vocational education programs; 3) the Maternal and Child Health and Mental Retardation Planning Acts of 1963; 4) Medicaid; 5) the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933; 6) the Work Experience program, enabled by Title V of EOA; 7) apprenticeship programs under Bureau of Apprenticeship Training; and 8) on-the-job training (OJT) programs. Type 2 programs, those that discourage rural-urban migration, are those that result in all kinds of improved conditions for the poor in rural areas, even if only for short-term periods. Some of these are: 1) rural CAPs; 2) the farm labor placement programs of the State Employment Security Commissions; 3) the categorical assistance programs administered by state and local departments of welfare; 4) unemployment insurance programs; 5) surplus food program; 6) the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 and the Economic Development Act of 1965 under the U. S. Department of Commerce; 7) the Farm Credit Administration of the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the Rural Electrification Administration; 8) the Farmers' Home Administration, strengthened by the EOA of 1964; 9) industrial development programs operated on the state level; and 10) the local corporation development program of the Small Business Administration. A discussion follows on the conflicts in programs and policies that influence rural-urban migration. There are four named kinds of conflict: (1) conflicts between the ways in which programs are conceived or delivered and the needs of the target population; (2) conflicts between underlying assumptions or objectives and the effect or requirement of the operation; (3) conflicts between various programs/policies occurring within individual agencies; and (4) conflicts at the local level between agencies. A discussion follows on the points at which intervention in the rural-urban migration process seems feasible and then comes a section on modifying existing programs.

0852. Schwarzweller, Harry K. "Education, Migration and Economic Life Chances of Male Entrants to the Labor Force from a Low-Income Rural Area." Rural Sociology, 29 (June, 1964), 152-167.
A discussion on the differences in occupational placement and material level of living in 1960 existing between migrants and nonmigrants who shared the same sociocultural environment when enrolled in the eighth grade in 1950 found that these were the result of regional differences in opportunities and cultural experiences intervening between 1950 and 1960.

0853. Schwarzweller, Harry K. Family Ties, Migration and Transitional Adjustment of Young Men from Eastern Kentucky. Bulletin 691. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1964.
An exploration of the extent to which familism affected the decision to move resulted in the finding that familism did not prevent migration but resulted in identification with home rather than the new community and a feeling of transiency rather than permanency.

0854. Schwarzweller, Harry K. "Parental Ties and Social Integration of Rural to Urban Migrants." Journal of Marriage and the Family, 26 (November, 1964), 410-416.

0855. Schwarzweller, Harry K. Sociocultural Factors and the Career Aspirations and Plans of Rural Kentucky High School Seniors. Progress Report 94. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1960.

0856. Schwarzweller, Harry K. Sociocultural Origins and Migration Patterns of Young Men from Eastern Kentucky. Bulletin 685. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1963.
Young men enrolled in the eighth grade in school in 1950 were studied in 1960 with regard to geographical mobility patterns and found to have migrated in large numbers because of the limited employment opportunities at home .

0857. Schwarzweller, Harry K., and Brown, James S. "Education as a Cultural Bridge between Eastern Kentucky and the Great Society." Rural Sociology, 27 (December, 1962), 357-373.

0858. Schwarzweller, Harry K., and Brown, James S. "Social Class Origins and the Economic, Social and Psychological Adjustment of Kentucky Mountain Migrants: A Case Study." Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 117-144.
It was found that high-class people tended to move as nuclear families, while intermediate class people tended

to maintain a family homestead in the mountains, and young migrants from these families usually joined older siblings or close kin. The low-class families exhibited a more diverse pattern. High-class families either moved completely out of the region or did not move, while others tended toward short, local moves first, in a step fashion. Differences were noted in time of migration and place of destination. It was found that the branch family networks perform different functions for the different classes of migrants. Various variables concerning interaction with kin at home and in the city were analyzed with regard to residential stability, nostalgia, happiness, worry, anomia, and anxiety.

0859. Schwarzweller, Harry K., and Brown, James S. "Social Class Origins, Rural-Urban Migration and Economic Life Chances: A Case Study." Rural Sociology, 32(1) (March, 1967), 5-19.
A re-study after 20 years of persons who had been living in three isolated mountain neighborhoods in eastern Kentucky, this paper explores the thesis that in a rural low-income area with a high rate of outmigration, the social class position of a family influences the pattern of outmigration, the structure of the migration process, and the economic life chances of individual migrants and families in the areas of destination. It was found that social class differences in the strategy of outmigration contributed to the maintenance and stability of the social class hierarchy within the migration system. Social class origin influences not only when a person left the mountains, where he moved, and with whom, but also his subsequent level of living in the urban area.

0860. Schwarzweller, Harry K., and Crowe, Martin J. "Adaptation of Appalachian Migrants to the Industrial Work Situation: A Case Study." Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 99-116.
The confirmed hypothesis is that male migrants from an isolated rural area of eastern Kentucky "have adapted with a minimum amount of strain to existing circumstances in the host community as a result of a combination of favorable factors: the particular and particularistic nature of the industrial work situation, the normative equivalencies which exist in the donor and recipient subsystems both at the place of origin and destination, and the supportive functions performed by the kinship network during the transitional period." Topics discussed include the rural-urban transition, initial job situation, job advancement and stability, reaction to

lay-offs, attitudes toward unions, job satisfactions, and overall occupational adaptation.

0861. Schwarzweller, Harry K., and Seggar, John F. "Kinship Involvement: A Factor in the Adjustment of Rural Migrants." Journal of Marriage and the Family, 29(4) (November, 1967), 662-671.
This paper deals with the rural migrant's involvement in a branch-family network in the area of destination and the effect of his attachment on his adjustment to the city. Five factors are taken into account: age, sex, educational level, length of time in the city, and social class origin. Data are from a follow-up study of the 'Beech Creek' sample. Except in the case of more recent migrants, size of migrant's effective kin group in the city was not found to be an important determinant of social psychological adjustment; however, social interactional differences with and within the kin group network do affect certain aspects of adjustment in certain cases. A solidary kin group appears to offer various types of migrants a "haven of safety" in time of stress.

0862. Scotch, N. A. "Social Change and Personality: The Effects of Migration and Social Mobility on Personality." Personality and Social Systems. Edited by N. J. Smelser and W. T. Smelser. New York: John Wiley, 1963. Pp. 323-330.

0863. Seggar, John F. "Social-Psychological Adjustment of Kentucky Mountain Migrants in Urbanized Industrial Areas of Southern Ohio." Unpublished master's thesis, University of Kentucky, 1964.

0864. Senior, Clarence. "Migration as a Process and Migrant as a Person." Population Review, 6 (January, 1962), 30-41.

0865. Senior, Clarence. "Puerto Rico: Migration to the Mainland." Monthly Labor Review, 78 (December, 1955), 1354-1358.

0866. Shannon, Lyle W. The Assimilation and Acculturation of Migrants to Urban Areas. Madison, Wisc.: University of Wisconsin Urban Program, 1963.

0867. Shannon, Lyle W. "Cultural and Related Restraints and Means of Overcoming Them." The Economic Development of Agriculture. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1965. Pp. 66-80.

0868. Shannon, Lyle W. "The Economic Absorption and Cultural Integration of Inmigrant Workers." Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 167-187.

The discussion centers on Mexican-American, Anglo, and Negro male and female migrants. Race and ethnicity, religion, and sex are designated as group "identity" variables which influence (a) a person's "acceptability", and, as hypothesized here, (b) world view, which would affect the use made of opportunities. It is posited that Anglo male Protestants and female Mexican-American Catholics would be extremes, with other ethnic/race-sex-religious groups falling along a continuum. World view and level of aspiration for children were used as measures of cultural integration, and level of living and occupational status were taken as measures of economic absorption, while education was felt to be an example of a determinant of success. The conclusion is that "...although Anglos, Negroes and Mexican-Americans differ in world view, the interrelationships of the variables within each ethnic group, religious group and sex category gives some but not much support to the detailed hypothesis."

0869. Shannon, Lyle W. "Economic Absorption and Cultural Integration of the Urban Newcomer." Emerging Problems in Housing and Urban Development. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, Institute of Public Affairs, 1965. Pp. 24-46.

0870. Shannon, Lyle W. "Goals and Values in Agricultural Policy and Acceptable Rates of Change." Goals and Values in Agricultural Policy. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1961. Pp. 260-384.

0871. Shannon, Lyle W. "Occupational and Residential Adjustment of Migrants." Labor Mobility and Population in Agriculture. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1961. Pp. 122-150.

0872. Shannon, Lyle W. "The Public's Perception of Social Welfare Agencies and Organizations in an Industrial Community." Journal of Negro Education, (Summer, 1963), 276-285.

0873. Shannon, Lyle W. "Urban Adjustment and Its Relationship to the Social Antecedents of Inmigrant Workers." International Review of Community Development, 13-14 (1965), 177-188.

0874. Shannon, Lyle W., and Krass, Elaine M. The Economic Absorption and Cultural Integration of Mexican-American and Negro Workers. Progress Report on National Institutes of Health Projects RG-5342, RG-9980, GM 10919 and Ch00042. Ames, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1964.

0875. Shannon, Lyle W., and Krass, Elaine M. "The Economic Absorption of In-Migrant Laborers in a Northern Industrial Com-

munity." American Journal of Economics and Sociology, 23 (January, 1964), 65-84.
A significant amount of variation was found in the occupational levels of Mexican-American rural migrants to an urban area which was not explained by the low level of education. However, the low level of first employment and limited education diminished the likelihood of upward mobility.

0876. Shannon, Lyle W., and Krass, Elaine M. "The Urban Adjustment of Inmigrants: The Relationship of Education to Occupation and Total Family Income." Pacific Sociological Review, (Spring, 1963), 37-47.
This paper is a study of the relationship of education to occupation and total family income of inmigrants in a Northern industrial community. Controls are included for race and ethnicity and length of residence in the community. The data were collected as part of a three-year study. The sample consisted of 284 Anglos, 236 Mexican-Americans, and 280 Negroes, all of whom had children 0-20 years of age. The Anglos had significantly more education than the Negroes, who had significantly more than the Mexican-Americans. The higher the level of education, the higher the occupational level at which males entered the work force--for all groups. When present job and education were cross-tabulated, there was a significant relationship between high level of education and a high level occupation only for Anglos. After controlling for length of residence, the relationship still held only for Anglos. When length of time in the community is added to the analysis, it is found that Negroes with less than eight years of education approach Anglos with longer residence. Mexican-Americans appear to move upward to a lesser degree or to stay at the same level. For persons with 9-12 years of education and less than nine years residence, there are no occupational differences associated with ethnicity. Anglos with ten or more years residence have significantly higher job levels. Total family income is also used as a measure of economic absorption. It is not highly correlated with occupation of the head of the family. Present family income and educational level are significantly related only for Anglos and, when length of residence is controlled, only for Anglos of more than ten years residence. Negroes of less than ten years residence and less than eight years of education have higher incomes than Mexican-Americans. Merely having a high school education does not seem to help the inmigrant minority group member push above the job or occupational level that calls for an eighth grade education. Higher levels of education and longer periods of residence in the urban,

industrial community are associated with higher occupational levels and higher total family incomes only for Anglos.

0877. Shannon, Lyle W., and Lettau, Kathryn. "Measuring the Adjustment of Inmigrant Laborers." Southwestern Social Science Quarterly, (September, 1963), 139-148.

0878. Shannon, Lyle W., and Morgan, Patricia. "The Prediction of Economic Absorption and Cultural Integration among Mexican-Americans, Negroes and Anglos in a Northern Industrial Community." Human Organization, 25 (Summer, 1966), 154-162.
This is a report on a three-year study of inmigrant labor in Racine, Wisconsin. Respondents were drawn from a population list of persons living in Racine who had children from zero to twenty years of age. The sample consisted of 284 Anglos, 236 Mexican-Americans, and 280 Negroes, half male and half female. The basic proposition of this is that measurable antecedent handicaps or indicators of these handicaps will explain a significant amount of the differences in absorption and integration within racial and ethnic groups as well as differences between racial and ethnic groups. When a summary scale of antecedent handicaps was constructed, Mexican-Americans were most handicapped and Anglos were least handicapped, with Negroes in-between but much closer to the Mexican-Americans. The following items characterized the most handicapped persons: respondent's former home was in the Southern U. S.; husband's father's occupation was agricultural laborer or farmer; respondent has lived in Racine nine years or less; husband has had less than eight years of education; husband's first job was agricultural laborer or farmer. The authors say that, "It is possible that, since most of the Mexican-Americans and Negroes obtained their formal education in rural Texas and the Deep South, respectively, while most of the Anglos attended school in the urban North, the social environment in which the child went to school was more important in predicting occupational success than years of formal education." "Although size of community of orientation has been mentioned in the literature as an important antecedent, it appears to be practically unrelated to the various measures of economic absorption utilized in this study." "If we substitute for size of community of orientation either a measure of urban exposure prior to the move to Racine or a measure of total urban exposure including the length of time spent in Racine, urban exposure still fails to show a significant relationship to present occupational level, income, or possessions for Mexican-Americans or Negroes, although

there is a significant correlation between urban exposure and income for Anglos." In this study the following were considered antecedent variables: (1) education of males; (2) first work experience; (3) length of prior urban exposure/experiences; (4) urban work experience; and (5) the scale of antecedent handicaps. Four additional variables may be considered as either antecedent or intervening variables depending on the point at which analysis commences: (1) occupational level of associates; (2) extent and pattern of social participation; (3) world view; and (4) occupational mobility type. Anglos had associates with significantly higher occupational statuses than did Negroes or Mexican-Americans. Mexican-Americans were lower on the scale than Negroes but not significantly so. Anglos were significantly more individualistic and less fatalistic than Mexican-Americans or Negroes; while Mexican-Americans and Negroes did not have significantly different world views, a higher proportion of Negroes than Mexican-Americans were individualistic and manipulative. Anglos had achieved significantly more high-status careers than Negroes and Mexican-Americans. The following measures of economic absorption and cultural integration were employed: (1) present occupational status; (2) income; (3) level of living; (4) world view; and (5) level of aspiration for children. Level of living was measured by two scales. Anglos were significantly higher on both possessions scales than either Mexican-Americans or Negroes, with no significant differences found among the latter two. Two "level of aspiration" scales were constructed. The first was limited to measuring the level of parents' aspiration for their children, while the second, the "level of aspiration and realism" scale, attempted to ascertain the respondent's views on how aspirations should or could be implemented as well as his awareness of the likelihood that they would be implemented. The "level of aspiration" scale revealed that Anglos had significantly higher educational and professional aspirations for their children than did Negroes, and Negroes had significantly higher aspirations than did Mexican-Americans. Anglos and Negroes were significantly higher on the "level of aspiration and realism" scale than Mexican-Americans, but Anglos did not have significantly higher scores than Negroes. When the combined samples of Anglos, Mexican-Americans and Negroes were examined without holding ethnicity or race constant, relatively high correlations were found between measures of economic absorption and cultural integration and their predictive set of scale scores. The authors conclude, "We have demonstrated that significant correlations exist in the combined samples and in the individual samples, but we have not really shown that our predicting variables are always antecedents."

0879. Shannon, Lyle W., and Shannon, Magdaline W. "The Assimilation of Migrants to Cities: Anthropological and Sociological Contributions." Urban Affairs Annual Review. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1967. Pp. 49-75.

0880. Shannon, Lyle W., et al. The Economic Absorption and Cultural Integration of Inmigrant Workers. Revised Report submitted to the National Institute of Mental Health. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1966. (Mimeographed.)

0881. Sharp, Harry P. "Migration and Social Participation in the Detroit Area." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1954.
This study found that in the case of Southern migrants, farm experience is usually related to a lowered rate of social participation. However, the effect of previous experience diminishes with length of stay in the new community.

0882. Sharp, Harry P. "Migration and Voting Behavior in a Metropolitan Community." Public Opinion Quarterly, 19
* (Summer, 1955), 206-209.
The author interviewed a sample of adults in Detroit, Michigan. The aim of the study was to discover differences in the pattern of voting, if any, between migrants and nonmigrants. "Voting appears to indicate a level of involvement in and adjustment to the community which is more closely associated with length of residence in the new area than with the place and type of previous residence," socioeconomic status, and demographic characteristics.

0883. Sharp, Laure, and Petersen, Gene B. Southern In-Migrant Study : An Overview. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, 1967.
For various reasons outlined in this interim report, Cleveland appeared to be the optimum city for a study of the occupational and social adjustment of Southern in-migrants, both white and Negro, in an urban industrial center. At first, interviews were conducted in person after a telephone screen. Later, incentive payments were used to bring interviewees to the office or to keep appointments at home, the cost being offset in savings in time and travel. At the time this report was written, interviewing was incomplete, and action programs had operated for only two months. It is apparent that the hard-core, problem-ridden migrant is in the minority, and a sizable trainee population for an MDTA-type program was not found among a randomly selected group of mi-

grants. Long-term residents are in a superior economic position to inmigrants in general. Women are more often unemployed, or else employed at a lower scale; little difference, however, has been shown in earning power between white and Negro. If, however, comparisons are restricted to full time employment, better pay goes to men rather than to women, to whites rather than to Negroes, and to those longer in the community. No public records or such data as utility records give an adequate method of locating inmigrants.

0884. Sheppard, Harold L., and Belitsky, A. Harvey. *The Job Hunt.* Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1966.

0885. Shotwell, Louisa R. *The Harvesters: The Story of the Migrant People.* New York: Doubleday and Co., 1961.

0886. Shryock, Henry S., Jr. "Annotated List of Estimates of Net Migration, 1940 to 1950, by the Residual Method." *Population Index*, 25(1) (January, 1959), 16-25.

0887. Shryock, Henry S., Jr. "The Efficiency of Internal Migration in the U. S." *International Population Conference Proceedings, 1959.* Vienna: International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1959. Pp. 685-694. The percentage that net migration for an area forms of the sum of inmigration and outmigration is considered as a measure of the efficiency, or effectiveness, of migration. Efficiency has tended to be greater for nonwhites than whites. Farmers had a highly efficient interregional migration among occupation groups between 1949 and 1950, particularly to the South from the West.

0888. Shryock, Henry S., Jr. *Population Mobility in the United States.* Chicago: University of Chicago, Community and Family Study Center, 1964.

0889. Shryock, Henry S., Jr. " Redistribution of Population: 1940 to 1950." *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 46(256) (December, 1951), 417-437.

0890. Shryock, Henry S., Jr., and Larmon, Elizabeth A. "Some Longitudinal Data on Internal Migration." *Demography*, 2 (1965), 591.

0891. Shryock, Henry S., Jr., and Nam, Charles B. "Educational Selectivity of Interregional Migration." *Social Forces*, 43 (March, 1965), 299-309. This study uses migration data from the 1940 Census (1935-1940), the 1950 Census (1949-50 and birth to 1950), and the CPS for 1959 (1958-1959) to determine how educational selectivity in migration has changed with time in the U. S. The analysis emphasizes long-distance migration and takes into account gross migration streams.

Using birth to 1950 data, the authors noted the following trends: (1) For all age-sex groups, median education level was higher for migrants out of a region than for those who remained in that region. (2) Median education levels were higher for migrants into the South than for those who stayed in the South; the opposite was true for the North and West. (3) In all age-sex groups, the following four ranked in descending order of educational level: (a) migrants from the North and West to the South; (b) Northern nonmigrants; (c) migrants from the South to the North and West; and (d) Southern nonmigrants. (4) Educational differentials by migration status were most pronounced at 35-54 years and tended to be greater for males at younger and central ages and for females at older ages. Migration out of the South was selective of middle educational levels in terms of origins, whereas migration to the South was selective of the better educated through age 54 and of extremes at older ages. These patterns have generally persisted over time. College-educated persons were selected in nearly all streams at all dates. The net effect of migration on the South was to raise slightly the educational level of the region. There was no racial breakdown given in the article. Outmigration from the South has been selective of the college-educated. Immigrants to the South, however, also have, on the average, very high educational attainment. Among the other three regions, the streams have been less selective.

0892. Siegel, Jacob S., and Hamilton, C. Horace. "Some Considerations in the Use of Residual Method of Estimating Net Migration." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 47 (September, 1952), 475-500.

0893. Simmons, Ozzie G., et al. Urbanization of the Migrant: Processes and Outcomes. Boulder, Colo.: University of Colorado, Institute of Behavioral Science, 1964.
This is a research proposal for a study aimed at identifying and exploring the social processes leading to success or failure of Spanish-speaking migrants in an urban setting. The study proposes to develop a model of urbanization processes and a computer simulation of these processes and then to test the model on additional data collected from another sample of migrants.

0894. Simons, Savilla Millis. Social Services for the Mobile Poor in Urban Areas. New York and London: Columbia University Press for the 1965 National Conference on Social Welfare, 1965.
The author gives a discussion of problems experienced by poor immigrants to the urban community and solutions suggested to deal with these problems. One solution would

be to establish welcoming service centers to aid new arrivals in the city.

0895. Simpson, Richard L., et al. Occupational Choice and Mobility in the Urbanizing Piedmont of North Carolina. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina, Institute for Research in Social Science, 1960.

0896. Sjaastad, Larry. "The Costs and Returns of Human Migration." Journal of Political Economy, 70 (October, 1962), 80-93.
This treatment places migration in a resource allocation framework. Within this framework, the author's goal is "to determine the return to investment in migration rather than to relate rates of migration to income differentials." After an extended discussion, the author states, "The main conclusion remains that migration cannot be viewed in isolation; complementary investments in the human agent are probably as important or more important than the migration process itself. (1) Gross rather than net migration is a more relevant concept for studying the returns to migration as well as the impact of migration upon earnings differentials. (2) Migration rates are not an appropriate measure for estimating the effect of migration. (3) Age is significant as a variable influencing migration and must be considered in interpreting earnings differentials over space and among occupations. (4) The relation between private and social costs of, and returns to, migration at best depends upon market structure, resource mobility in general, and revenue policies of state and local governments."

0897. Sjaastad, Larry A. "The Relationship between Migration and Income in the United States." Regional Science Association Papers and Proceedings, 6 (1960), 37-64.
"The question this paper attempts to answer is two-fold: first, are at least part of the measured income differentials a result of factor disequilibrium?; secondly, how effective is an unassisted labor market in removing these differences, i.e., how mobile is the population? The first question was tested by a cross-section gravity model searching for systematic migration after other factors had been accounted for. The second question employs a similar model, which assumes a functional relationship between the pressure (income differences) and the rate of migration." Findings: Other things constant, increasing education reduces real income relative to measured income. The coefficients of three variables, farm population, rate of change in income, and education consistently turned up the sign opposite that expected. The effects of including race lends more support to the

inferior-education-of-Negroes hypothesis than to the discrimination hypothesis. Further the effect of race diminishes with the age of the migrant, which is consistent with its being primarily an income adjustment variable. "It may take migration alone more than three decades to bring a State to par with other States had it begun with a per capita income (labor) of $1000 versus $1100 in all other States. This statement is necessarily crude. However, it surely points out that we cannot expect migration to bring about rapid adjustments to substantial changes in demand and technology. Thus, we may well be suffering substantial losses from resource misallocation due to the slow workings of the labor market." Suggestions for improving the labor market fall into two categories: first, improving the channels of information, and second, artificially increasing the incentive the market offers.

0898. Skrabanek, Robert L. Agriculture's Human Resources in Cherokee County, Texas. Progress Report 1888. College Station, Tex.: Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1956.
Between 1940 and 1950 most migrants from farms moved out of the county. However, a greater proportion of white than of Negro migrants remained in the county.

0899. Skrabanek, Robert L. Characteristics and Changes in the
* Texas Farm Population. Bulletin 825. College Station, Tex.: Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agriculture Experiment Station, 1955.
Most data used here were derived from U. S. Census reports. The bulletin concerns itself mainly with farm population trends and an explanation of why these trends occurred. "Farm population trends in Texas generally have been in the same direction as in the nation and the West South Central division...." Before 1937, the speed of decline was less rapid and after 1945, more rapid than the nation's. "Age differentials are largely the result of variations in the rates of migration into or out of the different classes of residential areas, with youth being the most important group. In Texas, 70% of the youngsters living on farms in 1940 between the ages of 10 and 15 were no longer farm residents in 1950."

0900. Skrabanek, Robert L. "Farm Population Estimates for 1958." Texas Agricultural Progress, 4(6) (November-December, 1958), 19.

0901. Skrabanek, Robert L. "What's Happening to Texas Population? Texas Agricultural Workers' Association Proceedings, 29 (January, 1956), 1-8.
The author presents a discussion of some of the major

trends in the rapidly changing population picture and how they affect agriculture. Farm population losses have been accompanied by an increase in average size of farm and in number of part-time and residential farms.

0902. * Skrabanek, Robert L., and Bowles, Gladys K. Migration of the Texas Farm Population. Bulletin 847. College Station, Tex.: Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1957.
Data used here are from U. S. Census reports and reports of the Agricultural Marketing Service. The study focuses on migration as it affects the farm population of Texas. A decided drop in the number of people leaving farms has occurred since 1954. Between 1940 and 1950 the net loss through migration was greater than for the two previous decades combined. In this period, rates of net outmigration were higher among youth, nonwhites, females, and residents of certain economic areas.

0903. Skrabanek, Robert L., and Bowles, Gladys K. The 1957 Texas Farm Population. Progress Report 2037. College Station, Tex.: Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1958.
This bulletin outlines then-recent changes in the farm population. Between 1950 and 1957 migration from farms was heaviest in areas of prolonged and serious drouth.

0904. Slocum, Walter L., and Stone, Carol L. The Farm People of Washington at Mid-Century. Bulletin 557. Pullman, Wash.: Washington Agricultural Experiment Station, 1955.
Net migration by counties, 1940 to 1950, shows that decreases were greatest in rural counties. The largest migration was among young people and older women.

0905. Slotkin, James Sydney. From Field to Factory: New Industrial Employees. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1960.

0906. Smith, Charles U. "The Disappearing Negro Farmer in Florida, 1920 to 1950." Florida A&M University Bulletin of Research, 9(3) (September, 1956), 12-18.

0907. Smith, Eldon Dee. "Migration and Adjustment Experiences of Rural Migrant Workers." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1953.
The author focuses on the situational matrices of farm life, from which emerged decisions to migrate, and of urban life, as it relates to the impact of migration processes on migrants. Patterns of adjustment for three cultural groups--Northern whites, Southern whites, and Negroes-- were studied. Examination is made of roles of friends and relatives, as well as formal media, as suppliers of information in advance of migration and in the adjustment processes following migration.

0908. Smith, Eldon Dee. "Non-Farm Employment Information for Rural People." Journal of Farm Economics, 38 (August, 1956), 813-827.
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The author presents results of a study of 157 migrants in Indianapolis. The investigation was aimed at discovering possibilities of creating better opportunities for rural people to obtain a higher level of living through farm and nonfarm work. The following hypothesis was tested: "Information is a limitational factor in migration." The following conclusions were drawn: When considerable distances are involved in rural-urban migration, special problems are created that are not ordinarily dealt with by conventional employment media. Evidence indicated that lack of specific information about pay and social requirements resulted in doubts and fears that may contribute to immobility. Information supplied to areas with large numbers of underemployed Negroes is likely to result in substantially more migration than if supplied to either Northern agriculture areas or areas of predominantly white population in the South.

0909. Smith, Eldon Dee. "Urban Employment for Rural People: The Problems and Possibilities of Long Distance Migration." Abstracts of the Association of Southern Agricultural Workers Proceedings, 52 (1955), 12.
Migration from Southern farms relieves population pressures on agricultural resources; outmigration will continue as long as there is sufficient nonfarm employment to absorb the growing population.

0910. Smith, Joel. "Some Considerations in Formulating a Classification Schema for Migration Histories as Incidental Variables in Social Research." Paper presented at the Conference on Migration Histories, Washington, D. C., February 5-6, 1970. Durham, N. C.: Duke University, 1970. (Typewritten.)

0911. Smith, T. Lynn. "Changing Number and Distribution of the Aged Negro Population in the United States." Phylon, 18 (January, 1958), 339-354.
The Negro population is aging rapidly, but still the proportion of aged remains below that for the total population. Discussion of the factors involved indicates that this will continue until 2000. The distribution of the aged Negro population along with its migration is studied, showing indices for 14 cities which have an out-of-proportion segment of the Negro aged. Discussion of Smith's method of determining age distribution of migrants, and estimates based on these conclude: (1) the distribution of the aged Negro population is becoming less equitable; (2) There is a heavy exodus of the aging

Negro population, flowing mainly to California, Louisiana, Illinois, Michigan, New York, Texas, Florida, Ohio and Alabama. Another major finding is the substantial rural-urban migration.

0912. Smith, T. Lynn. "Dynamics of the Rural Population. Part III. Levels and Trends in Rural Migration." Rural Sociology, 19(1) (March, 1954), 78-82.

0913. Smith, T. Lynn. "Migration." The Sociology of Rural Life, 3rd Ed. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953. Pp. 160-195.
The author discusses the movements of people to and from farms, 1920-48, with a section on the selectivity of rural-urban migration. He also includes a section on movement from farm to farm.

0914. Smith, T. Lynn. "Migration from One Latin American Country to Another." International Population Conference Proceedings, 1959. Vienna: International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1959. Pp. 685-702.

0915. Solien, N. L. "The Family Organization in Five Types of
* Migratory Wage Labor." American Anthropologist, 63 (December, 1961), 1264-1280.
The author presents an exploratory attempt to classify various types of migratory wage labor and to suggest some of the probable effects of each type of migration on family organization. The nature of the period of absence from the home village is the basis for classification. The categories discussed are: (1) seasonal migration; (2) temporary, nonseasonal migration; (3) recurrent migration; (4) continuous migration; and (5) permanent removal. There are several essentially different patterns of behavior which are usually lumped together in discussions of migrancy and the family. The main conclusion was that migrancy would be reflected in the social organization in different ways depending upon the nature of the sociocultural system affected, as well as upon the type of migrancy itself. Some types of migrant labor appeared to have little effect on the family, regardless of what the traditional family form might have been. Other types of migrancy seemed to be more compatible with some forms of family household organization than with others.

0916. Solomon, Darwin Dale. "Value Factors in Migration: Rural Residence Values Associated with Rural to Urban Migration." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Cornell University, 1957.
This study deals with the theoretical proposition that, situational factors being equal, measurable value concepts which people have regarding the relative desirabil-

ity of particular aspects of the rural versus urban environments (residence values) are important factors in the selectivity of migration. The major hypothesis was that, other things being equal, the married sons and daughters of native-born, open-country residents of Broome County, New York, who were living in the open country at least four years previous to 18 years of age and are now between 19 and 50 years of age, will differ in their evaluation of specific aspects of rural versus urban conditions of living by rural and urban residence. Migrants tended to prefer the educational, intellectual, and religious activities of the city. Nonmigrants tended to prefer the country for a better home life, healthy living conditions, hobbies, and aesthetic enjoyment. The major hypothesis was accepted.

0917. Somers, Gerald G. "The Experience with Retraining and Relocation." Paper presented at Conference on Manpower Policy, Berkeley Unemployment Project, New York City, June 20-22, 1966. (Mimeographed.)

0918. Sovain, N. V. "Potential Out-migrants and Removable Surplus Population in Three Districts of Orissa (India)." International Population Conference Proceedings, 1959. Vienna: International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1959. Pp. 703-709.

0919. Spaulding, Irving A. Rhode Island Population: Selected Characteristics of Migration, 1950. Miscellaneous Publication 55. Kingston, R. I.: Rhode Island Agricultural Experiment Station, 1958.
The author presents tabular report showing mobility of the population by sex and residence, number of inmigrants and outmigrants by geographic divisions, source and destination of migrants by leading States, and movements among farm and nonfarm residence groups by State economic areas.

0920. Spaulding, Irving A., and Beers, Howard W. Mobility and Fertility Rates of Rural Families in Robertson and Johnson Counties, Kentucky, 1918-1941. Bulletin 451. Lexington, Ky.: University of Kentucky, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1943.

0921. Spengler, Joseph J. "The Economic Effects of Migration." Selected Studies of Migration Since World War II: Proceedings of the 34th Annual Conference of the Milbank Memorial Fund. New York: Milbank Memorial Fund, 1958. Pp. 172-192.

0922. Spengler, Joseph J., and Duncan, Otis D. Demographic Analysis: Selected Readings. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1956.

0923. Spiegelglas, S. "The Role of Industrial Development as a Factor Influencing Migration to and from Wisconsin Counties, 1940-1950." *Journal of Farm Economics*, 43 (February, 1961), 128-137.

0924. Staples, Robert E. "The Lower Income Negro Family in St. Paul." St. Paul, Minn.: St. Paul Urban League, 1967. (Mimeographed.)

0925. Stewart, C. T., Jr. "Migration as a Function of Population and Distance." *American Sociological Review*, 25 (1960), 347-356.

0926. Stewart, J. Q., and Warntz, W. "Physics of Population Distribution." *Rural Sociology*, 1(1) (1958), 99-123.

0927. Stingell, L. D. 'Some Private and Social Aspects of the Labor Mobility of Young Workers." *Quarterly Review of Economics and Business*, 6 (Spring, 1966), 19-27.

0928. Stoddard, Ellwyn R. *The Role of Social Factors in the Successful Adjustment of Mexican-American Families to Forced Housing Relocation.* El Paso, Tex.: City of El Paso, Texas, Department of Planning Research and Development, Community Renewal Program, 1970.
The author says that, "While this is a description of problems and unique factors concerned in the forced relocation of families within the same city where they were living, some of the findings may be applicable to evaluation of social adjustment problems to be encountered in migration, where some of the same factors as involved in the relocation are also involved in the migration adjustment process." Data were obtained five years after relocation. From the 1,155 families relocated, a sample of 40 homeowners and 40 renters was selected and personally interviewed. The relocated sample had been rather stable, long-time residents and were usually older families, a third having no children at home and another quarter having children older than high school age. "....an interesting and somewhat unexpected finding was that the more mobile tenement renters had less overall adjustment problems than either the more permanent house renters or the stable homeowners who purchased another house." "There was seldom any resentment toward the physical appearance of the new location...." "However, when a move to a relatively disorganized area was compounded by the area being identified as a Negro neighborhood, the reaction to this blurring of minority identities was very disturbing and was apparent in one-half of the more seriously maladjusted families studied." "...future relocation projects should be aware of these intra-minority identity patterns...." "...overall, it appears that the stereotype of Mexican-Americans relying

only on familial resources in open to question."

0929. Stone, Leroy O. "Evaluating the Relative Accuracy and Significance of Net Migration Estimates." Demography, 4(1) (1967), 310-330.

0930. Stouffer, Samuel A. "Intervening Opportunities and Competing Migrants." Journal of Regional Science, 2 (1960), 1-26.

0931. Stouffer, Samuel A. "Intervening Opportunities: A Theory Relating Mobility and Distance." American Sociological Review, 5 (1940), 845-867.

0932. Strodtbeck, Fred L. "Population, Distance and Migration from Kentucky." Sociometry, 13(2) (May, 1950), 123-130.

0933. Struening, Elmer L., Rabkins, Judith G., and Peck, Harris B. "Migration and Ethnic Membership in Relation to Social Problems." Behavior in New Environments: Adaptation of Migrant Populations. Edited by Eugene B. Brody. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1970. Pp. 217-247. The focus of this chapter is upon the relationship between migration and mental illness. It is stated that is has not been shown unequivocally that differences in admission rates between migrants and natives are specifically attributable to migration rather than to intervening variables such as social class, race or speed of transition. The authors present a review of the literature in the context of what they define as have been the four successively popular views on the relationship between migration and mental illness. The authors took a different view in conducting their own study; thus, an increased incidence of physical illness and deviant or disruptive behavior, as well as mental illness, was the outcome of adaptation to a new social context. Method of investigation was social area analysis. Migrants studied were Negroes from the South and Puerto Ricans from abroad having moved to the Bronx and Brooklyn between 1955-1960 in comparison with a relatively permanent native population of each ethnic group. Health indicators investigated were the number divorced or separated, the number on welfare in 1962, the number of infant deaths under one year from 1960 to 1965, the number of premature births in 1960 and 1965, the number of births with prenatal care beginning in the seventh or eighth month, the number of reported homicides, the number of arrests of persons 7-20 years old, and admissions to hospitals. Of particular interest is one finding: "It is clearly apparent that recent arrivals to the city do not end up on welfare roles more quickly than more permanent residents...." The conclusion was that "...the number of migrants and the number of relatively permanent residents of the same ethnic group played virtually identical roles in predicting the indicators of social, health and mental health problems," except that migrants had higher rates of hospitalization for mental illness.

0934. Stub, Halger R. "The Occupational Characteristics of Migrants to Duluth: A Retest of Rose's Hypothesis." *American Sociological Review*, 27 (February, 1962), 87-90.
*
Seven hundred thirty-five persons (heads of each family moving into Duluth and visited by the "Welcome Wagon" in Duluth in 1958) were studied. The hypothesis retested was as follows: Higher status persons, seeking the better jobs or opportunities, must move a greater distance to find them, on the average, than do persons seeking less desirable opportunities. The data support Rose's findings that professionals and managers migrate longer distances than do lower status migrants. Also, the higher status migrants are more likely to come from eastern urban centers, while middle and lower status groups come from rural areas, small cities, and towns lying west of the Mississippi.

0935. "The Study of Migrants as Members of Social Systems." *Proceedings of the 1968 Annual Meeting of the American Ethnological Society.* Seattle, Wash.: University of Washington Press, 1968. Pp. 34-64.

0936. Sundquist, James L. "Where Shall They Live?" *Public Interest*, (Winter, 1970).

0937. Suval, Elizabeth, and Hamilton, C. Horace. "Some New Evidence on Educational Selectivity in Migration to and from the South." *Social Forces*, 43 (May, 1965), 536-547.
Conclusions: (1) Migrant populations include proportionally more of the better educated persons regardless of age, sex, color, or direction of migration to and from the South and its divisions. (2) The correlation between educational attainment and migration increases with distance. (3) White-nonwhite differences are evident in volume and direction of migration but also reflect basic differences in education. (4) The most pronounced correlations between education and migration occur at younger age groups. (5) Sex differences in education and migration appear to reflect basic differences in educational attainment between males and females. (6) Of the factors in this study, education is the only one over which the individual and society have any control. Thus, the relationship between education and migration deserves the consideration of those studying the educational system.

0938. Taeuber, Conrad. "The Census Bureau Projections of the Size and the Age and Sex Composition of the Population of the United States in 1975." *Applications of Demography: The Population Situation in the United States in 1975.* Edited by Donald J. Bogue. Oxford, Ohio: Scripps Foundation, 1957. Pp. 53-58.

0939. Taeuber, Conrad. "Economic and Social Implications of Internal Migration in the United States." *Journal of Farm Economics*, 41 (December, 1959), 1141-1154.
*
This is largely a study of the effects of off-farm migration on such economic and social aspects as occupational mobility, social mobility, industrial growth, and suburbanization. "The decrease in the number of farms and of farm population has created significant problems of organization for agencies that are accustomed to functioning on a county basis....As a result of the continued intermingling of rural and urban people, the distinctions involved in the dichotomy, rural and urban, are becoming increasingly blurred....The fact that Americans exercise their freedom to move has been an important factor in developing national homogeneity....There will continue to be a need for high levels of mobility in the population if the economy is to function at the levels of which it is capable. Rural-urban migrations will contribute, but they may well become less and less significant in the total pattern of internal migration."

0940. Taeuber, Conrad. "Migration and Rural Population Adjustment." *Rural Sociology*, 5(4) (December, 1940), 399-410.
The author includes tables and a discussion of changes in farm population, 1930-35, in relation to per capita value of farm property in 1930. He concludes that increase in farm population was greatest in the poorest land areas--those in which considerations of a sound land use call for a reduction, rather than an increase, in numbers.

0941. Taeuber, Conrad. "Recent Trends of Rural-Urban Migration in the United States." *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly*, 25(2) (April, 1947), 203-213.
The author describes the volume and extent of farm migration, 1940-45, as well as fertility, replacement potentials, and future trends.

0942. Taeuber, Conrad, and Taeuber, Irene B. *The Changing Population of the United States.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958.
This publication provides an overall view of the changing American population, including population growth, external and internal migration and urban-rural distribu-

tion. Data were drawn from population censuses from 1790 to 1950 and supplemented by vital statistics for later years.

0943. Taeuber, Irene B. "Migration, Mobility, and the Assimilation of the Negro." Population Bulletin, (November, 1958), 129-134.

0944. Taeuber, Karl E. "Cohort Migration." Demography, 3(2) (1966), 416-422.

0945. Taeuber, Karl E. "Duration-of-Residence Analysis of Internal Migration in the United States." Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly, 39 (1961), 116-131.

0946. Taeuber, Karl E. "Residential Segregation." Scientific American, 213 (August, 1965), 12-19.

0947. Taeuber, Karl E., and Taeuber, Alma F. "The Changing Character of Negro Migration." American Journal of Sociology, (January, 1965), 429-441.
Negro inmigrants to several large cities were not found to be of lower socioeconomic status level than the resident Negro population, but were equal to or slightly higher in status than the resident white population in Northern cities.

0948. Taeuber, Karl E., and Taeuber, Alma F. "The Negro as an Immigrant Group: Recent Trends in Race and Ethnic Segregation in Chicago." The 1962 Proceedings of Social Statistics Section of the American Statistical Association. N.p.: American Statistical Association, 1962. Pp. 11-18.

0949. Taeuber, Karl E., and Taeuber, Alma F. Negroes in Cities: Residential Segregation and Neighborhood Change. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1965.
Of particular interest is a chapter on the changing character of Negro migration. Data used were for the 1955-1960 period. For the ten SMSAs under study, it was found that, compared to nonmigrants in the cities, the inmigrants were younger, better educated and more likely to be employed in white collar occupations, and the ratio of males to females is similar. Inmigrants of nonmetropolitan origin were generally found much younger than those of metropolitan origin. Further, they were similar to nonmigrant residents of cities in educational and occupational status, except when age was controlled. When age was controlled, they showed lower status than the resident population. In the four Southern SMSAs the effect of migration has been negative because there are fewer inmigrants than outmigrants, and the status of inmigrants, while slightly above the resident population, is below that of the outmigrants. The net impact

of migration on Northern and Border state SMSAs was mixed. There is a discussion on the residential distribution of Negroes, from which it is concluded that "Negro migrants are not concentrated or overrepresented to any appreciable degree in any type of area." "Negro migrants are distributed throughout the city in much the same manner as the total population of which they are a part."

0950. Taeuber, Karl E., and Taeuber, Alma F. "White Migration and Socioeconomic Differentials between Cities and Suburbs." American Sociological Review, 29 (1964), 718-829.

0951. Taeuber, Karl E., Chiazze, Leonard, Jr., and Haenzel, William. Migration in the United States: An Analysis of Residence Histories. Public Health Monograph No. 77. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.
The authors use Census data obtained in 1958. Discussions center on residential stability, frequency and distance of migration, variety of residential experience, timing of migration in life cycle, migration sequences, and birthplace as a characteristic.

0952. Taeuber, Karl E., et al. "Residence Histories and Exposure Residences for the United States Population." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 56 (December, 1961), 824-834.

0953. Tarver, James D. "Bureau of the Census Data on the Selectivity of Migration from Farms." Rural Sociology, 22 (June, 1957), 162-163.
* The author studied off-farm migrants, using U. S. Census data. The objectives of the study were to show the paucity of published census data on certain characteristics of migrants, especially those migrating from farms, and to suggest a new classification of migrants that should make possible further analysis to fill this gap in research knowledge. "In order to maximize the usefulness of published census data in migration research, there is a need for the following additional types of classification: (1) by type of residence at both origin and destination; (2) by the four types of migration according to the unit of migration...; (3) by characteristics of family head and size of family at the date of migration."

0954. Tarver, James D. "Evaluation of Census Survival Rates in Estimating Intercensal State Net Migration." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 57 (1962), 841-862.

0955. Tarver, James D. "Interstate Migration Differentials." *American Sociological Review*, 28 (June, 1963), 448-451. Reply with rejoinder by R. A. Gordon: *American Sociological Review*, 28 (December, 1963), 987-988.

0956. Tarver, James D. "Metropolitan Area Intercounty Migration Rates: A Test of Labor Market Theory." *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 18 (January, 1965), 213-223.

0957. Tarver, James D. *Migration in Georgia.* Research Report No. 26. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1968.
Topics covered include statewide migration trends before and after 1870; direction of interstate migration streams, including destinations of outmigrants and origins of inmigrants for 1935-1960; intrastate migration streams; and selectivity of migration.

0958. Tarver, James D. "Negro Exodus from the South." *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 45 (Spring, 1955), 301-302.

0959. Tarver, James D. "Occupational Migration Differentials." *Social Forces*, 43 (December, 1964), 231-241.

0960. Tarver, James D. *Population Change and Migration in Oklahoma, 1940-1950.* Bulletin B-485. Stillwater, Okla.: Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1957.
This bulletin contains results of a study of the people of Oklahoma, 1940-1950, using data derived mainly from census reports. This study showed that the growth in "the suburban areas accounted for virtually all of the migration increase in the Oklahoma population....On the other hand, the population in each of the 11 nonmetropolitan economic areas declined because of outmigration. Recent Oklahoma population estimates indicate a continuation of the 1940-1950 trends, except in a few counties."

0961. Tarver, James D. "Predicting Migration." *Social Forces*, 39 (March, 1961), 208-213.

0962. Tate, Leland, and Blume, George. "Virginia's Changing People." *Virginia Farm Economics*, 158 (May, 1959), 2-5.
The authors examine population trends for the State and each residence group from 1900 to 1950 with projections for 1960, 1970, and 1980. In 1980 Virginia's rural-farm population will comprise about 8% of the State's total population, according to estimated trends.

0963. Taves, Marvin J. "Consequences of Population Loss in Rural Communities." *Labor Mobility and Population in Agriculture.* Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1961.

0964. Taves, Marvin J. Mobility among High School Graduates. Sociology and Rural Life Series No. 3. St. Paul, Minn.: Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station, 1959. The author analyzes migration and vocational aspirations of male graduates from a low and a high income farming area in Minnesota to determine their vocational and geographic mobility patterns. More of the high than of the low income area graduates had migrated from their high school community, but they less often moved outside the state.

0965. Taves, Marvin J. "Population Loss Affects Everyone." Minnesota Farm and Home Science, 19 (Fall, 1961), 12, 21.

0966. Taves, Marvin J., and Coller, R. W. In Search of Opportunity: A Study of Post High School Migration in Minnesota. Technical Bulletin 247. St. Paul, Minn.: Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station, 1964.

0967. Taylor, Frederick. "Relocation Riddles." Wall Street Journal, May, 1965. The author discusses a U. S. Government experimental program whereby the jobless from long-depressed areas are relocated where jobs are available. The Area Redevelopment Administration found that the psychological aspects of moving are more of a barrier than the economic strain. Mobility is directly related to education: the greater the education, the greater the mobility. Since 1952 the Bureau of Indian Affairs has relocated 70,000 Indians from reservations to cities. Despite services such as relocation allowances, temporary housing, job leads, social services, and emergency funds, 40% of these Indians returned to the reservations.

0968. Taylor, Lee. Urban-Rural Problems. Belmont, Calif.: Dickenson Publishing Co., Inc., 1968. This book deals with five social problems. Chapter One concentrates on low-income rural people. Chapter Two deals with the aspirations of rural youths for educational and occupational attainment. Many rural youths migrate to urban areas. Consequently, it is a major social problem to get rural youths to achieve in an urban-oriented society. Chapter Three deals with education and training. It is difficult to establish rural educational facilities that meet the needs of both urban and rural areas. For those who have not completed their public school education, retraining programs are being established to expand their occupational effectiveness. Chapter Four is concerned with problems in government and representation. As rural and urban people interact, a whole set of governmental problems comes into existence for regulating the new patterns of interaction. Chapter Five concerns population and land use.

0969. Taylor, Lee, and Glasgow, Charles W. Occupation and Low-Income Rural People--A Southern Regional Study. Southern Cooperative Series Bulletin 90. Agricultural Experiment Stations of Alabama, Florida, North Carolina, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Texas, 1963.

0970. TenHouten, Warren D. "The Black Family: Myth and Reality." Psychiatry, 33 (1970), 145-178.

0971. Tetreau, E. D., and Fuller, V. "Some Factors Associated with the School Achievement of Children in Migrant Families." Elementary School Journal, 46(6) (1942), 423-431.
This article reports a study of school achievement of children in migrant families from the point of view of the student of social organization. The data were gathered by a survey of all children in Arizona schools whose parents had moved to Arizona in the period January, 1930 to January, 1940. Replies were received from 20,881 children in 13,334 families. The sample used in the study consisted of children aged 8-16, and only the two oldest in school from each family, or some 13,000 children. One-third were from families of skilled or semi-skilled workers; one-fourth, from white collar families; one-fifth, from farm laborers; one-sixth, from unskilled agricultural laborers; and the rest, about 6%, from farm operators. The first study was a comparison of age-grade status with father's occupation. The ranking by proportion reaching the standard grade or higher is: children of white collar workers; children of farm operators and of skilled and semi-skilled workers (approximate tie); children of unskilled laborers; and children of farm laborers, by far the lowest. The differential in average age decreases with increased grade level. The relationships of age-grade status to former region of residence, mobility, and time of arrival in Arizona were then studied. Children from the Middle West far surpassed those from the West and West South Central in achievement. This was still the case when occupation was controlled. Mobility was also related to age-grade status of children. For ages 8, 11, 13, 14, and 15, there was an inverse relationship between number of states lived in (minimum of two) and percent of children in the standard grade or higher. These were not controlled for occupation, so the relationships may be obscured by an excess of white collar families' children. There was also a positive relationship between time in Arizona and attainment. (There was a large influx of farm laborers into Arizona in 1937-40 which may, in part, account for

this.) A comparison of attainment of migrant children in California with those in Arizona shows the situations to be roughly comparable. The child's position in school is mainly determined by two factors: region of origin (without regard to father's occupation) and occupation. Thus, the authors conclude that the quality of the schools and not just the position in the community determine the achievement of the child.

0972. Texas. Agricultural and Mechanical College. Agricultural Experiment Station. Trends in the Texas Farm Population 1947, 1948, 1949. Progress Reports 1098, 1128, and 1184. College Station, Tex.: Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1947, 1948, and 1949, resp.
These bulletins present annual estimates of the Texas farm population, 1930-1949 and discuss volume of migration and the factors influencing migration from farm areas.

0973. Texas. Good Neighbor Commission. Texas Migrant Labor: The 1967 Migration. Austin, Tex.: Texas Good Neighbor Commission, 1968.

0974. Thomas, Brinley. Migration and Economic Growth. Cambridge, Eng.: Cambridge University Press, 1954.

0975. Thomas, Dorothy S. "Age and Economic Differentials in Internal Migration in the United States: Structure and Distance." International Population Conference Proceedings, 1959. Vienna: International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1959. Pp. 714-721.
Two bodies of Census data are analyzed for possible associations between economic factors and age differentials in internal migration. Net intercensal migration gains of native whites from 1880 to 1950, by decades, showed a close positive association between levels of migration and swings in economic activity and an association between the varying intensity of male migration in the later years of young adulthood. Migration gains during the period 1935-1940 varied systematically, by age, in terms of the economic structure of sending and receiving areas.

0976. Thomas, Dorothy S. Research Memorandum on Migration Differentials. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1938.

0977. Thomas, Dorothy S. "Selective Internal Migration: Some
* Implications for Mental Hygiene." Demographic Analysis: Selected Readings. Edited by Joseph J. Spengler and Otis D. Duncan. Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1956. Pp. 425-431.

The author presents a brief resume of the present empirical foundation of knowledge regarding selective internal migration (physical fitness, intelligence levels, mental fitness, and familial adjustment). The evidence, though not clear-cut, suggests that migrants, particularly cityward migrants from rural areas, are somewhat better physical risks than nonmigrants; of average or slightly better than average intelligence; disproportionately young adults and adolescents; often disproportionately females; and more successful than their nonmigrant brothers and sisters in establishing marital ties. From the standpoint of mental hygiene, these findings suggest that migrants, by and large, will represent more favorable than unfavorable risks. However, problems of selective migration have not yet been sufficiently worked up on the empirical side to give us definite answers in regard to the extent and nature of the selection or shifting of population classes in the process of migration, of their effects in modifying the environments of both sending and receiving areas through the withdrawal or introduction of diverse cultural and personal elements.

0978. Thomlinson, Ralph. "The Determination of Base Population for Computing Migration Rates." Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly, 40 (July, 1962), 356-366.

0979. Thomlinson, Ralph. "A Mathematical Model for Migration:
* A Methodological Study to Improve the Quantitative Analysis of Migration Data by Controlling for Certain Spatial Demographic Variables." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia University, 1960.
This is a methodological study attempting to improve the quantitative analysis of migration data by controlling for certain important spatial variables. Construction of the model involved a number of series of equidistant concentric circles used to approximate a double-integral formula for the probability of migration between any two areas. After an exploratory pretest taking New England as the universe, states as areas, and Bogue's state economic areas as sub-areas, this model was applied to migration between regions of the U. S., using 1935-1940 census data. The results provided overwhelming support for the usefulness of the model.

0980. Thomlinson, Ralph. "Methodological Needs of Migration Research." Population Review, 6 (January, 1962), 59-64.

0981. Thomlinson, Ralph. "A Model for Migration Analysis." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 56 (September, 1961), 675-686.

0982. Thompson, John L. "A Case Study of Interregional Labor
* Migration." Association of American Geographers Annals,

46 (June, 1956), 277-278.
This is a case study of interregional labor migration of Eastern Kentuckians to Southwestern Ohio. The paper is based partly on facts gathered from industrial administrators and partly on existing documents. While Kentuckians were not as numerous as Ohio-born employees, their influence as a source of cheap labor for expansion and attraction of industry was disproportional to their numbers. Remoteness and a low standard of living in Kentucky had created clannish attitudes which were evident in migration. The newly arrived Kentucky-born migrants had created industrial problems, e.g., absenteeism and social problems in their community.

0983. Thompson, Warren S. Migration within Ohio, 1935-40: A Study in the Redistribution of Population. Scripps Foundation Studies in Population Distribution No. 3. Oxford, Ohio: Scripps Foundation, 1951.
The author gives a detailed analysis of the streams and rates of migration within and between metropolitan and nonmetropolitan subregions of Ohio, with some emphasis on residence class of migrants in their community of origin. Social and economic characteristics of migrants are a central focus.

0984. Thompson, Warren S., and Bogue, Donald J. "Subregional Migration as an Area of Research." Social Forces, 27(4) (May, 1949), 392-400.

0985. Thornbrough, Emma L. The Negro in Indiana: A Study of a Minority. Indiana Historical Collections Vol. 37. Indianapolis, Ind.: Indiana Historical Bureau, 1957.

0986. Thornthwaite, C. Warren. Internal Migration in the United States. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1934.

0987. Thurow, Lester. "The Causes of Poverty." Quarterly Journal of Economics, 81 (February, 1967), 39-57.

0988. Thurow, Lester. The Occupational Distribution of the Returns to Education and Experience for Whites and Negroes. Final Report submitted to the Office of Economic Opportunity. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, after 1962.

0989. Thurow, Lester. Poverty and Discrimination. Washington, D. C.: The Brookings Institution, 1969.

0990. Tilly, Charles. "The Assimilation of Rural and Urban Migrants to Wilmington, Delaware." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, August, 1962.

0991. Tilly, Charles. Migration to an American City. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.

0992. Tilly, Charles. "Race and Migration to the American City." The Metropolitan Enigma: Inquiries into the Nature and Dimensions of America's Urban Crisis. Edited by James Q. Wilson. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Chamber of Commerce, 1967. Pp. 124-146.
This paper reviews the relationship between migration and the living conditions of Negroes in cities. It considers which of those relationships are established and suggests what might be done to change them. A growing number of Negro migrants are moving from one Northern or Western metropolitan area to another, while the number going from the rural South to the cities of the North and West has decreased. A part of this process has been the large increase in the nonwhite population of the central cities of major metropolitan areas since 1940 and an increasing flight of whites to the suburbs. The net migration to an area corresponds very closely to its income level and its production of new jobs. The average nonwhite migrant comes to the city with less education and occupational skill than either the white migrant or the bulk of the urban population, but compared to the nonwhite population in the city, the average nonwhite migrant has an advantage in age, occupation and education. There is no indication that migrant families are more unstable than immobile ones; in fact, among nonwhites, the bigger the move, the higher the proportion of married couples. Evidence also indicates that crime and delinquency rates for nonwhite migrants to the cities are lower than for natives. The way assimilation to the city works is more important than how much stress and strain migration creates.

0993. Tilly, Charles, and Brown, C. H. "On Uprooting, Kinship and Auspices of Migration." International Journal of Comparative Sociology, 8 (September, 1967), 139-164.
There are three basic questions: First, what part does kinship play among the major auspices of migration to cities? Second, what forms do relations with kinsmen take during the process of migration itself? Third, what happens to relations with kin during the assimilation of the migrating group to the new community? By the auspices of migration, "we mean the social structures which establish relationships between the migrant and the receiving community before he moves." "The general hypotheses are: (1) Reliance on kinfolk, on the one hand, and transfer of skill, knowledge and power appropriate for dealing with major urban institutions, on the other, are two alternative patterns of migration, and reliance on kinfolk is more common among those handicapped with respect to those institutions by low rank, little urban experience, extreme youth or age, and discrimination.

(2) Either one works to mitigate the disruption caused by migration. (3) Kin groups specialize in domestic forms of aid, and the specialization is greatest in those groups relying least on kinfolk. (4) Migration under the auspices of kinship promotes continuing intense involvement in kin groups, and thereby slows down assimilation to the formal structures of the city." "A study of migrants to Wilmington, Delaware done in 1961 dealt with these general questions. The sample consisted of quotas for each of the twelve categories created by simultaneously distinguishing white collar from blue collar, white from nonwhite, and natives, migrants arriving before 1953 and migrants arriving in 1953 or later from each other. The sample consists of adults living in families, heavily concentrated in their thirties and forties, most of them in the labor force...." "So far, the information suggests that migration more often disrupted family life for blue collar migrants and those at the extremes of age; nonwhites also seemed to feel that disruption a little more often, but there were no consistent differences between migrants of rural and urban origins." "The blue collar migrants relied on kinfolk distinctly more often than the white collar migrants did. They also got aid, encouragement or information from friends more often. Turning to the compairson of migrants from urban and rural origins, since the differences are not large enough to reach statistical significance the comparison leaves this segment of the basic hypothesis doubtful." "The differences by color indicate that nonwhites are less likely than whites to migrate under the auspices of work. As expected, the proportion of migrants coming to Wilmington under the auspices of kinship declines with age at migration up to 40, and then rises again somewhat." "Fewer than half of the migrants coming under the auspices of work had ever made trips to the city." "A strong occupational difference and a weak rural-urban difference confirm the relationship between reliance on kinfolk and low rank or little urban experience. Migrants were asked where they got information concerning housing; information concerning jobs; information concerning living conditions; and other aid or encouragement. An Aid Index was constructed. The Index is particularly high for those who came unmarried and alone, for migrants from Delaware and the South, for those explaining their coming to Wilmington through 'family reasons' and for migrants making major changes in type of job and migrants coming directly from rural areas." "By the hypothesis, kin groups should play a larger part in housing and living conditions than in jobs, and this specialization should be greater for the types of migrants relying least on their kinfolk.

In fact, the data on sources of information do not confirm the hypothesis." "Those who came under the auspices of kinship participate less actively in voluntary associations, neighbor somewhat less and are a little less likely to vote, but they are home owners about as often as the others, and their level of information on city affairs averages about as high." "We may continue to speculate that auspices affect long-run integration into the life of the city, but these data certainly do not establish the speculation as a fact."

0994. Tobin, James. "On Improving the Economic Status of the Negro." Daedalus, (Fall, 1965).

0995. Tolley, G. S. "Population Adjustment and Economic Activity: Three Studies of Interstate Migration." Regional Science Association Papers and Proceedings, 11(3) (n.d.), 85-97.

0996. Tolley, G. S., and Hgort, H. W. "Age-Mobility and Southern Farm Shell: Looking Ahead for Area Development." Journal of Farm Economics, 45 (February, 1963), 31-46.

0997. Tripp, Thomas A. Rural Americans on the Move. New York: Friendship Press, 1945.

0998. Tumin, Melvin M. "Some Social Consequences of Research on Racial Relations." The American Sociologist, 3(2) (May, 1968), 117-124.

0999. Turner, Ralph H. "Migration to a Medium Sized American City: Attitudes, Motives, and Personal Characteristics Revealed by Open-Ended Interview Methodology." Journal of Social Psychology, 80 (1949), 229-249. Results of the study were presented in list format: I. Opinions and Attitudes and Their Relationships to the Variables Studied: (1) Reasons for moving were economic or job related in 57.3% of the cases. The remainder were equally divided between factors associated with friends and relatives and those with quality of living (most frequently housing). (2) Persons with low SES more often mentioned job factors, while those with high SES more often mentioned noneconomic factors. (3) Job-related reasons were particularly important at high educational levels. (4) Single females mentioned friends and relatives more than did males. (5) The only variable related to number of reasons given for moving was SES: low SES persons gave more reasons. (6) 63.7% of the reasons given were attractive influences. (7) Single females and highly educated individuals were more intense in saying that noneconomic factors were at least as important as economic factors. (8) Of these noneconomic factors, single females mentioned friends and liking for job more than did males. Individuals with high SES mentioned health, home, and liking for job; those with low SES, social standards and community respect. (9) 82.2% could have found a good job at their old location. (10) 52.9% of those who disliked their previous job gave noneconomic reasons for migrating. (11) 24.8% had jobs at their old location which they had to terminate. This was more often the case with individuals of high SES. (12) Motivation based on economic dissatisfaction was of lesser consequence to single females and persons with high SES. (13) Increased earnings as a factor involved mainly younger persons and those with low SES. (14) People with higher SES and educational levels tended to have specific information about their new jobs before they moved. (15) Nonveterans and individuals with high SES reported jobs which required more moves. (16) 75.5% had discussed the move with their family (most often the spouse). Because of the specialized nature of their jobs, fewer highly educated individuals discussed their moves than did lower educated. (17) Of the persons with high SES, fewer had relatives in the city, and those that did said that they were a factor in the move less often than did the group with low SES. II. Characteristics of Persons Making the Change in Location: (1) Migrants were not habitual migrants. They averaged 4.06 moves since the age of 10 and had a mean age of 41.5. The highly educated groups moved more often than the lower group. (2) Low SES persons, veterans, and married males tended to make longer moves. (3) Younger persons are more mobile than older persons and are more mobile than the older persons were at the same age. (4) Migrants to the city had a higher mean SES level than did the general population. (5) More lower educated individuals were home owners than the highly educated individuals who were more mobile. (6) The migrant group had a higher percentage of professionals, semi-professionals, proprietors, managers and non-farm officials than the resident population. (7) The lack of single males is attributed to a lack of reasonably priced rooming accommodations, so the males commute to work from parental homes rather than migrate. (8) Migrant households had more children than the general population. This is related to the youth of the migrants and the fact that their children have not left home. (9) Size of place of origin was not related to any of the variables analyzed.

1000. Ulibarri, Horacio. "Social and Attitudinal Characteristics of Spanish-Speaking Migrant and Ex-Migrant Workers in the Southwest." Albuquerque, N. M.: University of New Mexico, 1966. (Mimeographed.)

1001. Ullman, Edward L. "Amenities as a Factor in Regional Growth." *The Geographical Review*, 44(1) (January, 1954), 119-132.

1002. U. S. Committee for Congested Production Areas. *Final Report.* 1944.

1003. U. S. Congress. House. Committee on Agriculture. Subcommittee on Rural Development. *Effect of Federal Programs on Rural America. Hearings.* 90th Cong., 1st sess. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

1004. U. S. Congress. House. Select Committee to Investigate the Interstate Migration of Destitute Citizens. *Interstate Migration. Hearings, 1940-41.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, n.d.

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1006. U. S. Congress. Joint Economic Committee. Subcommittee on Fiscal Policy. *Income Maintenance Programs. Hearings.* 2 vols. 90th Cong., 2d. sess. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.
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1008. U. S. Department of Agriculture. Agricultural Marketing Service. *Farm Population...Migration to and from Farms, 1920-1954.* AMS-10. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1954.
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1011. U. S. Department of Agriculture. Federal Extension Service. "Migrants-ESC-549." *Cooperative Extension Service Work with Low-Income Families (series).* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963.

1012. U. S. Department of Agriculture and the University of Georgia. *Study of "Poverty Dimensions of Rural-to-Urban Migration."* Based on the 1967 Survey of Economic Opportunity. Washington, D. C. and Athens, Ga.: U. S. Department of Agriculture and the University of Georgia, In process.

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1016. U. S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *Current Population Reports.* Series P-20. *Population Characteristics.* No. 28: "Internal Migration in the U. S.: April 1948 to April 1949." Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1950.

1017. U. S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *Current Population Reports.* Series P-20. *Population Characteristics.* No. 36: "Internal Migration- March 1949 to March 1950." Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1951.

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1030. U. S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *Current Population Reports.* Series P-20. *Population Characteristics.* No. 143: "Mobility of the Population of the U. S.: March 1962 to March 1963." Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963.

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1038. U. S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *Current Population Reports.* Series P-20. *Population Characteristics.* No. 193: "Mobility of the Population of the United States: March 1968 to March 1969." Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1969.

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1042. U. S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. *Current Population Reports.* Series P-23. No. 29: "The Social and Economci Status of Negroes in the United States, 1969." Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1969.

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1060. U. S. Department of Labor. Employment Service. *Labor Recruitment for Agriculture: the Farm Placement Service in 1948.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1949.

1061. U. S. Department of Labor. Manpower Administration. Bureau of Employment Security. *Farm Labor Developments, September.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1965.

1062. U. S. Department of Labor. Public Hearing. *Testimony of Herbert Hill (NAACP), November 5, 1963.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963.

1063. U. S. National Commission of Urban Problems. *Building the American City.* *Final Report.* Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1969.
This document reviews the following poverty-related urban problems: (1) population, poverty, and race; (2) housing programs, (3) codes and standards, (4) governmental structures, finance and taxation, (5) reducing housing costs, and (6) improvement of the environment. Paul H. Douglas was chairman of the Commission, and Walter Rybeck of the Commission staff supervised the preparation of this report.

1064. Valien, Preston. "Internal Migration and Racial Composition of the Southern Population." *American Sociological Review*, 13(3) (June, 1948), 294-298.
The author presents a discussion of migration between 1935 and 1940 by color for urban, rural-nonfarm, and rural-farm areas separately. Results indicate that whites left rural-farm areas in greater proportions than nonwhites.

1065. Valien, Preston. "Overview of Demographic Trends and Characteristics by Color." *Demographic Aspects of the Black Community.* New York: *Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly*, 1970. Pp. 21-37.

1066. Vandiver, Joseph S. "Some Population Trends in the More Rural States, 1940-1950." *Rural Sociology*, 16(2) (June,

1951), 154-163.
Total population of the States examined increased more slowly than the Nation as a whole, indicating outmigration. Heaviest losses in the rural population occurred in the western half of the Corn Belt and in the Plains States. Rural population losses were generally heaviest in areas where the farm population comprised a large proportion of the rural total.

1067. Varley, Andrew. "Migration Studies." Population Research and Administrative Planning. Conference Series No. 10. State College, Miss.: Mississippi State University, Division of Sociology and Rural Life, 1962. Pp. 62-64.
* The author presents a review of migration research studies in progress. Also, planned migration research projects are discussed. "The research being carried on in the field of migration can be classified loosely as describing migration that is taking place, as interpreting migration in a cause and effect type of analysis, and as research primarily concerned with data problems." Analysis, interpretation, and projection are becoming increasingly important in the field of migration research.

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1069. Vining, R. "On Describing the Structure and Development of a Human Population System." Journal of Farm Economics, 42 (December, 1959), 922-942.

1070. Wagner, John, Jr. Program and Services of Urban Churches in Helping Rural Youth Become Assimilated in Urban Areas. Washington, D. C.: National Committee for Children and Youth, 1963.

1071. Wakeley, Ray E., and Jehlik, Paul J. "Regional Research in Population Dynamics." Rural Sociology, 18(2) (June, 1953), 166-169.

1072. Wakeley, Ray E., and Mohiey, Eldin Nasrat. "Sociological Aanlysis of Population Migration." Rural Sociology, 26 (March, 1961), 15-23.
* The authors present results of a study of 99 Iowa Counties, using Census data. The study had two main purposes: (1) to illustrate the application of the conceptual variable analysis in the study of population migration, and (2) to explain and attempt to predict net migration by use of a theory of human relationships. The following hypothesis was tested: Net migration is (1) directly related to the coefficient of variation, (2) inversely to the coefficient of deprivation, and (3) inversely to the coefficient of comparative rewards. Contrived indices for coefficients of variation, depri-

vation and comparative reward were developed. A logical explanation for migration was attempted, but when tested empirically, it did not predict. Statistically significant relationships were found between the measures of cohesion and two of the three measures of deprivation. The relationships between the measurement variables were sufficient to give support to the empirical hypotheses. These results support the conceptualized framework, but do not prove it. They indicated ways in which these concepts might be used in setting up a research or an action program involving migration into or from a social system.

1073. Wakeley, Ray E., and Russell, Amy. Migration and Changes of Population in Iowa, 1960. A&HEES Project No. 1225. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University, Agricultural and Home Economics Experiment Station, 1960.
This bulletin shows net migration of rural-farm population for each decade, 1920-1950. Heavy migration during 1940-50 resulted in a decrease in total population of many rural counties. In general, counties with large industrial developments tended to show small decreases in population or actual increases through migration.

1074. Waldo, Arley D. "The Impact of Migration and Multiple Job Holding upon Income Distribution in Agriculture." Journal of Farm Economics, 47 (December, 1965), 1235-1244.

1075. Walz, Orry C. "Migration of Ranch Country Youths." Southwestern Social Science Quarterly, Supplement to Vol. 41, (1960), 283-289.
The author describes movement of youth away from Coal County, Oklahoma, and compares some characteristics of migrants with nonmigrants. A larger percentage of migrants than nonmigrants came from nonfarm homes, were married, came from homes with working mothers, worked in clerical positions, and had "above average" grades in school.

1076. Warner, W. Lloyd., and Srole, Leo. The Social Systems of American Ethnic Groups. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University, 1945.

1077. Warntz, W., and Heft, D. "Contributions to a Statistical Methodology for Areal Redistributions." Rural Sociology, 2(1) (1960), 47-66.

1078. Wayland, Sloan R. "Basic Rural Trends and the Farmer of the Future." Farmers of the Future: A Report of Columbia University Seminar on Rural Life. New York: Columbia University, Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1953. Pp. 1-9.

Migration of farm population is one of the factors upon which the projection of future agricultural trends is based. The author considers the farmer's role in the total economy of 1975.

1079. Weaver, Robert C. "Non-White Population Movements and Urban Ghettos." *Phylon*, 20 (Fall, 1959), 235-241.
* The study raised the following questions: Will the metropolitan areas of tomorrow in the U. S. have a core of low-income nonwhite families surrounded by middle- and upper-income whites in the suburbs? Does this mean Negro political domination in the larger urban communities? Will downtown business and cultural institutions wither away from lack of support? The study shows that the racial occupational patterns, if ignored, are likely to threaten established businesses and cultural institutions in most of the larger and some of the smaller metropolitan areas in the U. S. This does not have to happen, and there are straws in the wind which suggest that it may not. The most encouraging sign is the tendency of those dedicated to the preservation of these cities to approach the problem of residential segregation with a new realism, which might lead to constructive solutions.

1080. Weiss, Carol H., and Johanson, Margit A. "Data Collection from Low-Income Populations: Bibliography." New York: Bureau of Applied Social Research, 1966.

1081. Weiss, Leonard, and Williamson, Jeffrey G. "Black Education, Earnings and Interregional Migration: Some New Evidence." Discussion Paper. Madison, Wisc.: University of Wisconsin, Institute for Research on Poverty, 1971. (Mimeographed.)

1082. Weiss, R. D. "The Effect of Education on the Earnings of Blacks and Whites." *Review of Economics and Statistics*, (May, 1970), 150-159.

1083. Welch, Finis. "Measurement of the Quality of Schooling." *American Economic Review*, 56 (May, 1966), 379-392.

1084. Welfare Council of Chicago. "In-Migrants-- Number, Location and Selected Characteristics." *Statistics*, 23 (11-12) (November-December, 1956), 107.

1085. Weltner, Charles Longstreet. *John Willie Reed.* Atlanta, Ga.: Southern Regional Council, 1969.

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1087. Wertheimer, Richard F., II. "Rural-to-Urban Migration: Implications for Government Policy." Research memorandum prepared for the Office of Economic Opportunity, 1967.

1088. West, James. "Social Structure: Classes." *Plainville, U. S. A.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1945. Pp. 128-133.

1089. Western Reserve University. Department of Sociology. *Cleveland's In-Migrant Workers: Part I.* Project 27, Hough Area Research 9, Report I. Cleveland, Ohio: Western Reserve University, 1957.
This is a descriptive report of inmigrants to Cleveland in 1957 who had registered for work at Ohio State Employment Service offices in Hough and other sections of Cleveland.

1090. "What Harvest for the Reaper?" Transcript of a National Educational Television Journal broadcast, produced by the National Educational Television Network, 1968.

1091. Whetten, Nathan L., and Burnight, Robert C. "Internal Migration in Mexico." *Rural Sociology*, 21 (June, 1956), 140-151.

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1093. Widner, Ralph. "The States, Regions and the Rural to Urban Population Shift." *The Rural to Urban Population Shift: A National Problem.* Proceedings of the National Manpower Conference sponsored by the U. S. Congress, Committee on Government Operations, Subcommittee on Government Research and Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, May 17-18, 1968. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.

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1098. Wilber, George L., and Bryant, Ellen. Population of Mississippi Counties and Cities, 1950 to 1960. Preliminary Report in Sociology and Rural Life No. 14. State College, Miss.: Mississippi State University, 1960.
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1099. Wilber, George L., and Rogers, Tommy W. Internal Migration in the United States, 1958-1964: A List of References. Sociology and Rural Life Series No. 15. State College, Miss.: Mississippi State University, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1965.

1100. Wilhelm, Sidney M., and Powell, Edwin H. "Who Needs the Negro? From the Economics of Exploitation to the Economics of Uselessness." Trans-action, (September-October, 1964), 18-34.
The authors say that the extent to which Negroes may be "pushed" out of the South will depend on acceptance of the Negro in Southern industry and black perceptions of opportunities there and elsewhere. Meanwhile, the birth rate among blacks in the South remains sufficiently high to more than replenish the loss through migration, although the latter consists largely of Negroes of prime working age.

1101. Willson, E. A. Off-Farm Residence of Families of Farm and Ranch Operators. Bulletin 530. Bozeman, Mont.: Montana Agricultural Experiment Station, 1957.
This bulletin shows the extent, reasons for moving, and social and economic implications of a movement to towns of farm families while they continue to operate their farms.

1102. Windham, Gerald O. "Socioeconomic Status and Formal Social
* Participation of Rural Migrant Families in Pittsburgh." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1960.
The data for this dissertation were collected from 1,470 families in the Pittsburgh Metropolitan Area. Relationship between the migrant status of the families and their socioeconomic status, and that between the migrant status of husbands and wives and their formal social participation were studied. Urban migrants were more numerous and nonmigrants less numerous in the higher status classes. When education was controlled there was no association between migrant status and housing status or socioeconomic status....Housing status did tend to

improve with length of residence in the community, but this factor was not related to socioeconomic status.... Nonmigrants of both sexes reported more organization memberships and attending more meetings per month than the other migrant groups. This relationship persisted when education and stage in family life cycle were controlled. Urban migrant wives followed by rural migrants held the most power positions proportionally....The data on selectivity of participation showed no consistent relationship between migrant status and the three qualitative measures of social participation."

1103. Windham, Gerald O. "Urban Identification of Rural Migrants."
* Mississippi Quarterly, 14 (Spring, 1961), 78-89. This paper is based on a study of 105 rural migrant families in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. The study was designed to test the hypothesis that the degree to which rural migrants identified with urban society was related to their position in the social and economic structure of the community. An index of urban identification was constructed from seven attitude items related to psychological adjustment. The rural migrants did not identify closely with urban society. However, there is a significant association between score on the urban identification index and four independent variables, namely housing status, social participation, formal education, and length of residence in the community. The evidence, in general, supports the hypothesis.

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1113. Zachariah, K. C. "A Note on the Census Survival Ratio Method of Estimating Net Migration." Journal of the American Statistical Association, 57 (1962), 775-831.

1114. Zaremba, Paul. "Labor Migration and Urban Unemployment: Comments and Reply (M. P. Todaro)." American Economic Review, 60(1) (March, 1970), 184.

1115. Zelinsky, W. "Recent Publications on the Distribution of Population in the U. S." Annals of the Association of American Geographers, 48 (December, 1958), 472-481.

1116. Zickefoose, Paul W. "Migration and Population Turnover." Economic Development in Southwestern Kansas. Part II. Population and the Labor Force. Lawrence, Kan.: University of Kansas, School of Business Research, 1953. Pp.64-90.
The author presents general economic, psychological and biological factors entering into population movements, and includes information on amount and rates of net migration, by residence, for 1930-40 and 1940-50.

1117. Zimmer, Basil G. "Adjustment of Migrants in the Urban Area: A Study of Participation in the Urban Community in Relation to Migration Experience." Dissertation Abstracts, 14(8) (1954), 1272-1273.
This dissertation contains results of a study based on interviews with a representative sample of family units in the industrial community of Ypsilanti, Michigan. The author analyzed influence of farm and community background upon length of time required to reach the level of community participation attained by the natives.

1118. Zimmer, Basil G. "The Adjustment of Negroes in a Northern
* Industrial Community." Social Problems, 9 (Spring, 1962), 378-386.
The subjects of the study discussed here were Negroes in the central city of a Northern community of 200,000 population. A random sample of 648 household heads was selected for study. The purpose of this paper was to describe the socioeconomic status of Negroes in a Northern industrial Community. Historically, Negroes involved in a mass movement from the rural South to urban areas have been faced with the handicaps of race and lack of formal education with which to cope with the strange environment in urban places. But future movements of Negroes will involve those reared and educated in an urban environment. Gains would be realized by the settling down of Negroes in urban centers. It would seem that the Negro in urban communities is entering a period of population stability where social and economic adjustments could be worked out for a stable population, whose growth would be largely through natural increase rather than a rapid expansion in numbers due to a constant influx of migrants from rural areas.

1119. Zimmer, Basil G. "Farm Background and Urban Participation."
* American Journal of Sociology, 61 (March, 1956), 470-475.
This paper is based on a study of a random sample of married male occupants in a Midwestern community. Two hypotheses were tested: 1) Migrants as a group will differ in level of participation from the natives, but migrants who come from a similar environment will be more like the natives than migrants who come from a dissimilar environment; and 2) The level of participation will vary inversely with the experience of migrants in a dissimilar environment. Migration itself does not limit participation. The community of origin is a more important determinant. Movement from city to city puts less limitations upon becoming assimilated to city life than did movement from rural to urban areas. High status tended to transcend the limiting influence of farm background. Any increase in amount of farm experience was closely related to a decrease in level of participation in the urban community."

1120. Zimmer, Basil G. "Participation of Migrants in Urban Struc-
* tures." American Sociological Review, 20 (April, 1955), 218-224.
A random sample of dwelling units in a Midwestern community (pop. 20,000) in 1951 was used. Interviews were then obtained from the married male occupants of those dwellings. Two hypotheses were tested: 1) Migrants

differ from the natives in level of participation, but become more similar to the natives in their behavior the longer they live in the community; and 2) Urban migrants tend to enter the activities of the community more rapidly than farm migrants. Both hypotheses were substantiated. The adjustment process took at least five years, however,the status affects its success.

ADDENDA

1. Annotations of Citations 0747, 1086
2. Additional Bibliographic Citations

0747. Petersen, Gene B., and Sharp, Laure. Southern In-Migrants to Cleveland: Work and Social Adjustment of Recent In-Migrants Living in Low-Income Neighborhoods. Washington, D. C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, Inc., 1969. In studying Southern inmigrants to Cleveland, the researchers' purpose was "to locate and assess the channels and barriers to adjustment, primarily by studying their experiences over time and by comparing them with those of their long-time resident neighbors." The study design called for a longitudinal study with three phases: Phase I-- identification of a systematic sample of low-income migrants; Phase II-- an experimental action program of job counseling, training and services for 400 low-income unemployed persons; and Phase III-- reinterview of the entire sample 18 months later. After consideration of alternative sites, Cleveland was selected as the point of survey activity. The original study design was modified to include 400 whites and 400 blacks in the city two or less years, 200 whites and 200 blacks in the city ten or more years, and 400 whites and 400 blacks who had lived in Cleveland two to five years. Even with modifications to the sample design, the researchers failed to locate 400 unemployed persons, so they had to recruit 160 more in order to begin Phase II. The authors present an extensive discussion of sampling, screening, and resultant biases. Findings on the characteristics of migrants include the following: (1) Most of the whites came from West Virginia and bordering states, while Negroes came primarily from Alabama and contiguous states. (2) The Negroes were more urban than whites. (3) The majority of migrants came directly to Cleveland from their home states. (4) Most of the migrants had some sort of employment experience before coming to Cleveland; however, whites had high unemployment rates prior to coming. The authors suggest that whites come to Cleveland for jobs, while Negroes come seeking better jobs. (5) The data suggest that the more recent arrivals are better qualified in terms of work experience and skill level than persons who arrived more than two years ago. (6) White males had the highest and black females,the lowest premigration wages. (7) Eighty percent of white males, 67% of white females and Negro males, and 40% of Negro females cited jobs and wages as major reasons for moving. Second most important reason for moving was desire to join or accompany family, relatives, or friends. (8) Most migrants came to Cleveland with limited assets (50-60% of all migrants, except Negro males who were better off, claimed they had less than $50 to meet their immediate needs). (9) Migrants were about ten years younger than the long-timers. (10) The Negro groups were better educated than whites. (11) More whites were married and living with spouse than were Negroes. (12) Recent migrants had lower income than long-timers. (13) Over time, the absolute economic status of the Negro male improves yet his relative status deteriorates. (14) Long-time resident females have the lowest incomes and the largest families. (15) Access to benefits of a liberal welfare system was of minor importance in migration, although many of the households had members that had at one time received unemployment or welfare payments. (16) Welfare recipiency was high for white females--perhaps there is a factor of selected outmigration of whites that leads to concentration of welfare recipients in ghettos. (17) Negroes were less likely to be considering a move than whites, who were more likely to be considering a move back home. The following are findings related to the Cleveland work experience: (1) In many cases the qualifications and experience of migrants counted for little in their landing their first job. The data indicate that men have faster entry into the labor force, and that whites have faster entry than blacks. (2) Median time between arrival in Cleveland and first job for those who had made prior arrangements for a job was less than a week, with no differences by sex or race; however, more whites made previous arrangements. (3) The presence of relatives in Cleveland was important for men but not women in prearranging work. (4) In finding their first jobs, most respondents relied most heavily on relatives or friends, second by going around to prospective employers, and third, white migrants used newspaper want ads, while blacks used want ads and State Employment Service. (5) There was a strong recruitment of whites into operative jobs (not based on skills), while Negroes began as operatives only if they had previous experience. (6) About 50% of males and 60% of females began work in Cleveland on a job at about the same skill level as they had before moving. (7) Most migrants acquired skills needed for Cleveland jobs in Cleveland, mainly at work. (8) At first job, men made more than women and whites made more than blacks. (9) Changes in jobs while living in Cleveland resulted in the advancement in skill level of the job hierarchy--white females made the fewest gains while Negro males made the greatest gains. (10) Migrants more often than long-timers were likely to be between jobs, and Negroes were more likely to be than whites. (11) Blacks had higher rates of job dissatisfaction than whites and were more likely to be looking for a job. (12) There was little evidence that people desire to leave the city for the farm. (13) The authors conclude that it takes about four years or more of residence in a community before the message of training opportunities passes from press releases through media and informal channels of communication down to the majority of the prime target population. (14) Whites had easier entrance into labor unions. Other findings include the following: (1) Most migrants spend first night in Cleveland with friends or relatives, although a high proportion of white females stayed in their own quarters. (2) Migrants were not particularly mobile once in the city--many had moved only once since arriving in the city. (3) Twenty-five to 33% of respondents denied having encountered any problems upon arriving in Cleveland. (4) Long-time residents make greater use than migrants of specialized services in dealing with sickness. (5) The data indicate no clear-cut race-sex differential in reliance on welfare. (6) Analysis of variance of social adjustment scores by migration status, sex, and race shows that migrant status explains most of the variance. (7) Where economic advance was clearly evident, satisfaction with the move to Cleveland was nearly unaminous. The authors conclude, "For large numbers of these migrants to achieve their goals, it would appear that opening channels to better jobs, upgrading low-paying jobs, and other forms of income elevation would provide more immediate solutions."

1086. Wertheimer, Richard F., II. The Monetary Rewards of Migration within the U. S. Washington, D. C.: The Urban Institute, 1970.
The author states, "The major purpose of this study is to report on some results of research directed at one aspect of the migration issue-- namely, the economic benefits of migration to the migrants themselves." "Policy makers at all levels of government often perceive migration as having powerful social and economic impacts." A discussion follows on the positive and negative effects of migration on areas of in- and out-migration and the positions officials in origin and destination areas are prone to take. Of particular interest are remarks concerning the effects of government policies and procedures on migration. "Economic development programs for rural areas and towns, migration subsidy and counseling programs, and proposals to eliminate interstate differences in welfare payments are all designed in part to affect migration. One purpose of rural economic development has been to stem out-migration. Migration subsidy and counseling programs are intended to improve the welfare of individual migrants by permitting them to locate in areas where they will have the greatest economic opportunity. One purpose of equalizing welfare payments is to eliminate an allegedly inappropriate stimulus of migration." "Many federal government activities have regional effects--favoring some places rather than others-- and inevitably affect migration. Among those with a substantial impact are: (1) defense procurement, (2) location of facilities or offices that boost federal employment, (3) agricultural subsidies, and (4) tariff policies. Defense procurement contracts are often concentrated in particular areas, such as the West Coast with its defense industries, so that the heavy concentration of new employment opportunities stimulates in-migration. Similarly, growth in federal employment in the Washington, D. C., metropolitan area induces sizable in-migration. Subsidies and tariffs protect some industries that are located in particular regions. In the case of areas with declining industries, subsidies and tariffs that retard the decrease in employment will cause net out-migration to take place more slowly. State and local governments can influence the location of employment-- and, thus, indirectly, migration--through the levels and types of taxation and through subsidies, including industrial development bonds. They also set levels of welfare payments and provide a range of public services--all of which may have direct or indirect effects upon migration." Concerning prevalent myths about migration, the author states, "Migration is

commonly viewed as massive, mostly rural in origin, and disproportionately black. Migrants are commonly viewed as poorly educated, prone to unemployment, likely to be on welfare, likely to riot, and rather unsystematic in their choice of destinations.....virtually all of these impressions are false." "...only about one-third of the increase in the Negro population in central cities is due to net migration." "Migrants, on the average, are younger and better educated than the rest of the population. Nonwhite rural-to-urban migrants are better educated than the average nonwhite resident at the origin but somewhat less educated than the average nonwhite at the destination. Nonwhite rural-to-urban migrants are about as likely to be employed as other nonwhite urban dwellers." "The reason why central cities are becoming increasingly black is related more to the out-migration of whites than to the in-migration of blacks." In presenting an economic theory of migration, Mr. Wertheimer theorizes that migrants make a choice of destination based on maximizing the economic returns over time. He puts forward equations which contain such factor considerations, among others, as individual's rate of time discount, expected cost of moving, and expected year of death. He presents another equation which gives the real return to migration if the migrant takes into account "psychic" factors. That is, the net psychic cost must be subtracted from the expected return to obtain the "real" return. The author puts forward eight hypotheses concerning the return to migration. The hypotheses are tested using multiple regression analysis to obtain an estimate of the annual earnings differential attributable to migration. Earnings of the family head are used as the dependent variables, and age, education, migration status, race and sex are used as explanatory variables. Two major types of migration are studied: (1) migration out of and into the South, and (2) migration into, out of, and among urban areas. The data used are the 1967 SEO tapes. Findings include the following: (1) "Migration out of the South yields an earnings difference of about $800 per year for most migrants. The two major exceptions to this figure are the college-educated, who earn a difference of nearly $3,100 per year, and women, who earn no additional income." (2) "Migration from rural areas into urban areas yields an earnings difference ranging from about $600 per year for cities with a population of less than 250,000 to nearly $1,100 per year for cities with a population over 250,000. The college-educated are significant exceptions to the general gain of rural migrants to smaller cities. For them, there is an expected loss of over $1,000 per year. Women, again, earn no additional income by migrating." (3) "Another finding is that, five years after moving, the migrants have earnings equal to those of the Northern and urban nonmovers of the same education, age, race, and sex." (4) "The relation between the return to migration and education is not clear-cut. The most dramatic example is the estimated return of -$11,840 for moving from a rural area to a medium-sized city. This analysis, therefore, neither confirms nor rejects the hypothesis that the return to migration is larger for the well-educated, but shows a mixed picture." (5) "For Negroes, the earnings difference attributable to migration out of the South was $800 per year during the first five years after their move, while the difference for whites during that period was insignificant. The conclusion is that South-to-North migration clearly is more profitable for nonwhites than for whites." The author concludes, "The most important policy implication of this is that programs to stem migration to the cities are not likely to have much impact on city problems. The cost to government of stemming migration would appear to be very high, particularly on a 'per migrant' basis. Finally, the findings are consistent with the well-known fact that migrants out of an area tend to be drawn from the best qualified and most productive people. The rural areas of the South lose a substantial investment they have made in human capital when migrants leave. If programs to halt migration to the cities are rejected, the problem of what happens to depressed rural areas remains."

1121. Bowles, Gladys K. "Migration Status and Residence Background of Husbands and Wives and the Incidence of Poverty in 1967." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Population Association of America, Washington, D. C., April 22-24, 1971. (Mimeographed.)

1122. Christian, Virgil L., and Pepelasis, Adamantios. "Farm Size as a Factor in the Relative Displacement of Black Farm Families." Paper presented at the Conference on Rural Manpower Problems sponsored by the University of Texas, Center for Study of Human Resources, Austin, Texas, February 12, 1971. (Mimeographed.)

1123. Cobern, Morris. *Manpower Implications of New Legislation and New Federal Programs.* Report No. 1. "The Family Assistance Plan: Its Impact upon State Employment Services." Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1970.

1124. Farley, Reynolds. *Growth of the Black Population.* Chicago: Markham, 1970.

1125. Farley, Reynolds. "Recent Changes in Negro Fertility." *Demography*, 3(1) (1966), 188-203.

1126. Fink, Elizabeth. "Some Aspects of Nonwhite Migration into the South, 1935-1940." Unpublished master's thesis, University of North Carolina, 1953.

1127. Fuller, Varden. "Rural Poverty and Rural Areas Development." *Poverty in America.* Edited by Margaret S. Gordon. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1965. Pp. 390-399.

1128. Fuller, Varden. *Rural Worker Adjustment to Urban Life: An Assessment of the Research.* Ann Arbor, Mich.: The University of Michigan-Wayne State University, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1970.

1129. Green, Bernal L.; Bender, Lloyd D.; and Campbell, Rex R. *Migration into Four Counties in the Ozarks Region.* Bulletin 756. Fayetteville, Ark.: University of Arkansas, Agricultural Experiment Station, 1970.

1130. Hansen, Niles. *Rural Poverty and the Urban Crisis.* Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Press, 1969. The author outlines a policy for dealing with various lagging regions--Appalachia, the South, the Ozarks, Southern Texas, Indian reservations, and other pockets of poverty-- and relates it to a simultaneous attack on the national problems of urban crisis and unemployment. First, he surveys in economic terms these various regions, then describes and evaluates what various governmental agencies are currently doing to alleviate conditions there. He concludes that their policies are generally ineffective. The author states that the real flaw in the current approach to rural poverty is not so much that it neglects costs considerations or that it fails to specify overall priorities, but that it seems too concerned with places rather than with people. He argues that it is futile for agencies to seek to attract industry to underdeveloped rural areas, since most industries want and need the facilities of large cities. He believes a more effective policy would be to focus development assistance on the opportunities in "intermediate centers"--cities of 200,000 to 500,000-- with good records and prospects of growth. The surplus population of lagging regions should than be encouraged to move to these centers, and government aid should be available to facilitate the process of adjustment and change. Families who want to migrate should be offered a varied program of assistance including education, vocational training, and a coordinated national employment service, as well as counseling and monetary help.

1131. Miles, Guy H. *Optimizing the Benefits of Neighborhood Youth Corps Projects for Rural Youth.* Final Report submitted to the U. S. Department of Labor, DOL Contract No. 41-7-006-25. Minneapolis, Minn.: North Star Research and Development Institute, n.d.

1132. Morrison, Peter A. *The Role of Migration in California's Growth.* Santa Monica, Calif.: The Rand Corporation, 1971.

1133. Myers, George C. "Health Effects of Urbanization and Migration." *Proceedings of the International Population Conference, London, 1969.* Vol. IV. Liege: The International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1971. P. 2950.

1134. Organization for Social and Technical Innovation. *An Assessment of Six Labor Mobility Demonstration Projects.* Final Report submitted to the U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. Cambridge, Mass.: Organization for Social and Technical Innovation, 1967.

1135. Stone, Leroy O. "Urbanization and Rural Population Age Structure: Some Generalizations." *Proceedings of the International Population Conference, London, 1969.* Vol. IV. Liege: The International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1971. Pp. 2923-2934.

1136. ter Heide, H. "Population Redistribution Policies in Western European Countries." *Proceedings of the International Population Conference, London, 1969.* Vol. IV. Liege: The International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1971. Pp. 2993-3006.

1137. U. S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. *Open-country Poverty in a Relatively Affluent Area--The East North Central States.* Agricultural Economic Report No. 208. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1971.

1138. U. S. Department of Agriculture. Economic Research Service. Economic Development Division. *The Economic and Social Condition of Rural America in the 1970's.* Prepared for the U. S. Senate Committee on Government Operations, 92d Cong., 1st sess. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1971.

1139. Wander, Hilde. "Policies and Implementation Methods in the Internal Redistribution of Population." *Proceedings of the International Population Conference, London, 1969.* Vol. IV. Liege: The International Union for the Scientific Study of Population, 1971. Pp. 3024-3037.

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Forced and Involuntary Migration:
0001, 0250, 0383, 0411, 0441, 0511, 0685, 0749, 0762, 0781, 0928, 1033, 1122.

Friendship as a Factor in Migration (see Kinship)

Government Policies Affecting Migration:
0046, 0060, 0115, 0116, 0403, 0413, 0448, 0464, 0540, 0541, 0576, 0585, 0634, 0635, 0679, 0762, 0768, 0843, 0851, 1003, 1054, 1092, 1123, 1132.

Growth Centers:

0078, 0118, 0413, 0487, 1128.
Health, Mental and Physical, of Migrants:
0001, 0031, 0127, 0206, 0306, 0316, 0415, 0473, 0512, 0530, 0531, 0532, 0561, 0568, 0606, 0620, 0639, 0674, 0684, 0768, 0777, 0836, 0837, 0862, 0863, 0933, 0977, 1129.
Income Effects of Migration:
0001, 0023, 0025, 0026, 0044, 0054, 0069, 0086, 0124, 0132, 0173, 0176, 0211, 0251, 0294, 0310, 0316, 0326, 0332, 0342, 0345, 3075, 0376, 0384, 0415, 0430, 0431, 0432, 0438, 0446, 0482, 0487, 0505, 0546, 0552, 0556, 0557, 0558, 0559, 0610, 0625, 0668, 0671, 0690, 0691, 0693, 0705, 0720, 0730, 0781, 0785, 0786, 0789, 0796, 0849, 0876, 0878, 0883, 0896, 0897, 0975, 0983, 0992, 0995, 1012, 1013, 1074, 1081, 1086.
Income Maintenance Programs/Strategies of Financial Support:
0006, 0119, 0233, 0250, 0294, 0465, 0507, 0525, 0665, 0746, 0765, 0766, 0767, 1006.
Information, Role of, in Migration:
0088, 0089, 0182, 0316, 0345, 0413, 0505, 0580, 0588, 0610, 0615, 0657, 0668, 0690, 0691, 0781, 0851, 0907, 0908, 0993.
Inmigration, Impact of, on Destination Areas:
0004, 0017, 0023, 0029, 0030, 0036, 0054, 0060, 0107, 0116, 0118, 0210, 0211, 0226, 0316, 0362, 0365, 0378, 0384, 0387, 0398, 0413, 0430, 0436, 0446, 0455, 0456, 0458, 0487, 0507, 0508, 0515, 0519, 0588, 0600, 0603, 0646, 0683, 0806, 0848, 0949, 0969, 0982, 0992, 1007, 1063, 1079, 1114, 1118, 1128.
Involuntary Migration (see Forced and Involuntary Migration)
Kinship/Family Ties/Friendship as Factors in Migration:
0001, 0072, 0073, 0102, 0138, 0163, 0168, 0182, 0223, 0224, 0228, 0316, 0473, 0487, 0498, 0559, 0583, 0588, 0591, 0593, 0610, 0615, 0620, 0662, 0664, 0690, 0710, 0781, 0796, 0814, 0819, 0820, 0821, 0833, 0842, 0853, 0854, 0858, 0860, 0861, 0907, 0915, 0993, 0999.
Labor Force, Rural, Growth/Surplus of:
0064, 0071, 0088, 0124, 0133, 0144, 0165, 0172, 0191, 0208, 0342, 0404, 0408, 0413, 0445, 0519, 0521, 0585, 0586, 0679, 0685, 0686, 0722, 0745, 0762, 0827, 0909, 0940, 1134.
Labor Mobility Demonstration and Relocation Projects:
0039, 0067, 0285, 0324, 0372, 0373, 0487, 0488, 0505, 0653, 0696, 0697, 0704, 0713, 0795, 0796, 0850, 0917, 0928, 0967, 1104, 1130.
Marital Status Factors/Formation and Disruption, Role of, in Migration:
0099, 0102, 0127, 0132, 0267, 0297, 0316, 0467, 0473, 0487, 0553, 0657, 0697, 0781, 0915, 0977, 0992, 0993, 0999, 1075, 1121.
Mechanization of Agriculture:
0017, 0082, 0144, 0171, 0172, 0191, 0208, 0243, 0247, 0252, 0267, 0390, 0391, 0403, 0404, 0515, 0615, 0685, 0686, 0745, 0762, 0781, 0792, 1012, 1078, 1122.
Mexican-American Migrants:
0001, 0022, 0152, 0189, 0202, 0206, 0236, 0249, 0255, 0284, 0291, 0299, 0415, 0444, 0468, 0469, 0470, 0534, 0573, 0702, 0709, 0725, 0781, 0795, 0796, 0830, 0831, 0832, 0842, 0843, 0868, 0869, 0874, 0875, 0876, 0877, 0878, 0880, 0884, 0893, 0973, 1000, 1090, 1091, 1108, 1109.
Future Migration--Outlooks, Predictions, Rates, Trends:
0047, 0049, 0054, 0055, 0124, 0207, 0208, 0286, 0403, 0508, 0550, 0579, 0585, 0739, 0781, 0826, 0962, 0995, 1078.
Migration Process:
0004, 0713, 0859, 0864, 0993.
Models and Theories:
0010, 0014, 0015, 0016, 0085, 0098, 0103, 0109, 0110, 0134, 0295, 0334, 0361, 0369, 0371, 0383, 0388, 0400, 0405, 0406, 0409, 0416, 0418, 0439, 0441, 0472, 0482, 0499, 0504, 0511, 0518, 0569, 0588, 0659, 0661, 0676, 0722, 0750, 0752, 0774, 0775, 0809, 0811, 0892, 0910, 0929, 0931, 0935, 0954, 0961, 0978, 0980, 0981, 1069, 1072, 1077, 1094, 1113.
Multiple Moves/Repeated Migration/Step Migration:
0001, 0058, 0127, 0215, 0252, 0257, 0362, 0366, 0473, 0609, 0781, 0858, 0915, 0951, 0999, 1012, 1041, 1048, 1110.
Net Migration:
0010, 0015, 0017, 0063, 0075, 0076, 0104, 0107, 0122, 0123, 0124, 0130, 0131, 0142, 0146, 0166, 0172, 0250, 0260, 0277, 0278, 0383, 0384, 0391, 0396, 0399, 0400, 0402, 0404, 0406, 0409, 0454, 0492, 0493, 0495, 0500, 0502, 0504, 0505, 0513,

0535, 0559, 0566, 0571, 0614, 0652, 0669, 0695, 0745, 0773, 0774, 0776, 0886, 0887, 0892, 0902, 0929, 0949, 0954, 0975, 1012, 1072, 1073, 1113, 1116.
Occupational Aspirations/Plans of Youth: 0020, 0182, 0186, 0215, 0359, 0393, 0444, 0615, 0664, 0733, 0808, 0855, 0964, 0968, 1112.
Occupational Mobility of Migrants: 0001, 0007, 0012, 0033, 0040, 0042, 0043, 0044, 0045, 0069, 0070, 0080, 0085, 0089, 0094, 0095, 0173, 0174, 0225, 0299, 0310, 0311, 0316, 0326, 0327, 0331, 0333, 0342, 0343, 0345, 0353, 0363, 0367, 0374, 0390, 0391, 0392, 0403, 0432, 0438, 0446, 0473, 0515, 0524, 0548, 0552, 0579, 0581, 0591, 0610, 0623, 0650, 0651, 0668, 0704, 0707, 0708, 0711, 0713, 0718, 0721, 0724, 0743, 0747, 0748, 0760, 0781, 0784, 0796, 0800, 0813, 0833, 0849, 0852, 0860, 0868, 0871, 0874, 0875, 0876, 0878, 0883, 0895, 0905, 0927, 0934, 0949, 0959, 0982, 0999, 1012, 1074, 1089.
OEO Program Effects on Migration: 0448, 0525, 0683, 0851.
Outmigration, Areas of: 0001, 0017, 0157, 0158, 0159, 0162, 0316, 0318, 0374, 0375, 0379, 0395, 0422, 0453, 0456, 0473, 0585, 0590, 0599, 0612, 0622, 0623, 0626, 0637, 0689, 0781, 0785, 0796, 0834, 0902, 0903, 0957, 0960, 0983, 0992, 1053, 1066, 1134.
Outmigration, Impact of, on Rural Areas: 0001, 0005, 0011, 0017, 0018, 0033, 0041, 0053, 0107, 0161, 0174, 0250, 0254, 0267, 0298, 0323, 0341, 0342, 0351, 0355, 0413, 0436, 0467, 0481, 0500, 0519, 0559, 0600, 0615, 0616, 0617, 0639, 0668, 0669, 0683, 0729, 0735, 0738, 0740, 0768, 0792, 0891, 0939, 0963, 1007, 1093, 1134.
Policy Recommendations, General: 0247, 0424, 0487, 0503, 0508, 0591, 0653, 0668, 0669, 0713, 0827, 1086.
Policy Recommendations for Urban and Rural Areas: 0001, 0004, 0048, 0064, 0089, 0116, 0118, 0149, 0162, 0165, 0206, 0208, 0235, 0246, 0250, 0413, 0423, 0458, 0507, 0519, 0550, 0559, 0575, 0585, 0600, 0601, 0603, 0610, 0642, 0646, 0662, 0663, 0683, 0685, 0745, 0768, 0781, 0787, 0803, 0850, 0870, 0894, 0897, 0969, 1003, 1086, 1134, 1135.
Poverty Levels among Migrants: 0027, 0029, 0030, 0054, 0127, 0747, 0781, 0796, 1012, 1121.
Push-Pull Factors (see Causes of Migration)
Reasons for Moving (see also Causes of Migration): 0001, 0100, 0114, 0182, 0193, 0210, 0215, 0300, 0316, 0359, 0360, 0372, 0374, 0383, 0473, 0558, 0559, 0574, 0575, 0585, 0595, 0609, 0620, 0679, 0692, 0707, 0708, 0733, 0781, 0815, 0816, 0819, 0821, 0828, 0833, 0859, 0907, 0916, 0966, 0993, 0999, 1033, 1101.
Relocation Projects (see Labor Mobility Demonstration and Relocation Projects)
Repeated Migration (see Multiple Moves)
Return Migration: 0001, 0021, 0056, 0089, 0161, 0172, 0231, 0277, 0279, 0299, 0403, 0447, 0473, 0668, 0734, 0781, 0796, 0835, 0967, 1012.
Rural Depopulation: 0008, 0011, 0018, 0053, 0082, 0124, 0128, 0139, 0140, 0161, 0162, 0166, 0190, 0203, 0204, 0258, 0268, 0293, 0335, 0342, 0360, 0456, 0467, 0481, 0487, 0495, 0501, 0502, 0589, 0757, 0791, 0792, 0838, 0963, 0965, 1066, 1073, 1098, 1122, 1134.
Rural Industrialization: 0002, 0084, 0162, 0165, 0171, 0191, 0250, 0286, 0440, 0458, 0633, 0781, 0827.
Social Participation of Migrants: 0310, 0316, 0348, 0382, 0498, 0539, 0544, 0641, 0677, 0702, 0781, 0878, 0881, 0882, 0993, 1102, 1103, 1117, 1119, 1120.
Step Migration (see Multiple Moves)
Ties to Rural/Origin Areas: 0138, 0142, 0168, 0275, 0300, 0313, 0359, 0489, 0559, 0595, 0610, 0620, 0664, 0668, 0781, 0819, 0820, 0842, 0849, 0853, 0858, 0916, 0967, 1103.
Tri-Ethnic Comparisons of Migrants: 0001, 0781, 0868, 0876, 0878.
Unemployment/Employment Levels, of Migrants: 0001, 0054, 0056, 0088, 0127, 0316, 0330, 0342, 0415, 0425, 0610, 0631, 0781, 0828, 0883, 1012, 1114.
Welfare, Motive for Migration; Effect on Migration; Number of Migrants on: 0001, 0054, 0127, 0218, 0316, 0415, 0559, 0610, 0747, 0763, 0781, 0933, 1012.